PERIODICAL ROOM
GENERAL LIBRARY
UNIV. OF MICH.

OCT 28 1940

The EDUCATIONAL RECORD

Train Conscripts for War—and for Peace
JOHN ERSKINE

Should Religion Be Taught in Our Schools?
ROBERT S. CLIFTON

Your Young Men Shall See Visions
FRANCIS KEPPEL

Comprehensive Qualitative Accrediting
ERNEST V. HOLLIS

OCTOBER 1940

THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

The EDUCATIONAL RECORD

VOLUME XXI NUMBER 4

OCTOBER
1940

COPYRIGHT, 1940, THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

1940-41

ADMINISTRATION

OFFICERS

CHAIRMAN: Henry W. Holmes, chairman, University Committee on Educational Relations, Harvard University, representing Harvard University

FIRST VICE CHAIRMAN: George Johnson, secretary of the National Catholic Educational Association, representing the Association

SECOND VICE CHAIRMAN: Margaret S. Morriss, dean of Pembroke College, representing the American Association of University Women

SECRETARY: George D. Stoddard, dean of the Graduate School, State University of Iowa, representing the State University of Iowa

TREASURER: Corcoran Thom, president of the American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D. C.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The Chairman and the Secretary of the American Council on Education

Until May 1943: Raymond A. Kent, president of the University of Louisville, representing the University of Louisville; Ernest J. Jaqua, president of Scripps College, representing the Claremont Colleges

Until May 1942: Herman L. Donovan, president of Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College, Richmond, Kentucky, representing the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; Herbert E. Hawkes, dean of Columbia College, Columbia University, representing Columbia University

Until May 1941: David E. Weglein, superintendent of schools, Baltimore, Maryland, representing the American Association of School Administrators; Laura Zirbes, professor of education, Ohio State University, representing the Progressive Education Association

Ex officio: John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education

EXECUTIVE OFFICERS

GEORGE F. ZOOK, President
C. R. MANN, President Emeritus
C. S. MARSH, Vice President
DONALD J. SHANK, Assistant to the President
GRACE R. ONTRICH, Chief Accountant

Published Quarterly by
THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.
50 CENTS A COPY $2.00 A YEAR
Entered as second-class matter June 8, 1932, at the Post Office at Washington, D. C., under the Act of August 24, 1912

The Educational Record

October 1940

CLARENCE STEPHEN MARSH, *Editor*

CONTENTS

CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE 440

TRAIN CONSCRIPTS FOR WAR—AND FOR PEACE *John Erskine* 441

SHOULD RELIGION BE TAUGHT IN OUR SCHOOLS? *Robert S. Clifton* 445

THE PLACE OF THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY IN THE MODERN WORLD *Carl M. White* 454

ADVENTURES OF A WORKSHOPPER *Howard M. Bell* 470

YOUR YOUNG MEN SHALL SEE VISIONS *Francis Keppel* 477

THE COLLEGES IN THE PREPAREDNESS PROGRAM 1917-18 AND 1940 *Rowland Haynes* 489

A DECADE OF PROGRESS IN ACCOUNTING AND FINANCIAL REPORTING FOR COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES *J. Harvey Cain* 497

COMPREHENSIVE QUALITATIVE ACCREDITING *Ernest V. Hollis* 506

WHO BELONGS TO THE COUNCIL? *Donald J. Shank* 538

THE COUNCIL AT WORK 549

FINANCIAL STATEMENTS OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION 559

INDEX TO VOLUME XXI 567

Contributors to This Issue

HOWARD M. BELL is a member of the staff of the American Youth Commission. He directed the Maryland youth study for the Commission and wrote the report, *Youth Tell Their Story.* His forthcoming book, *Matching Youth and Jobs,* is a study of occupational adjustment.

J. HARVEY CAIN is the part-time director of the Financial Advisory Service of the American Council on Education and is also associated with the firm of Franke, Hannon and Withe, certified public accountants, in New York City.

ROBERT S. CLIFTON is instructor in English and history at the Bancroft School, Worcester, Massachusetts. He formerly taught at the Storm King School and was head of the English department at Marot Junior College.

JOHN ERSKINE has been professor of English at Columbia University since 1916 and was president of the Juilliard School of Music from 1928 to 1937. He is well known as a writer, an editor of books on English literature, and a pianist. During the World War he was chairman of the Army Education Commission and organized and directed the A.E.F. University at Beaune, France.

ROWLAND HAYNES is president of the Municipal University of Omaha. Formerly he was connected with the University of Minnesota and the University of Chicago. He has held many administrative positions in war work, social welfare organizations, and governmental relief agencies.

ERNEST V. HOLLIS is associate for college teacher education, Teacher Education Commission of the American Council on Education. He was formerly associated with the School of Education, College of the City of New York, and at one time was president of the South Georgia State Teachers College.

FRANCIS KEPPEL is assistant dean of Harvard College. He received his A.B. from Harvard in 1938. While a student he was president of the Student Council and a member of several Student Council committees. He studied sculpture at the American Academy in Rome 1938-39 and since then at the Boston Museum School of Fine Arts.

DONALD J. SHANK is assistant to the President of the American Council on Education. "The Council at Work," which appears in each issue of THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD, is prepared by Mr. Shank.

CARL M. WHITE is librarian of the University of Illinois. He was formerly librarian of the University of North Carolina, and was librarian and professor of philosophy at Fisk University from 1934 to 1938.

The Educational Record

October 1940

Train Conscripts for War—and for Peace

By JOHN ERSKINE

ONCE more a large conscripted army will be summoned for training. What form is that training to take? We can, of course, do the usual thing. We can call these young men together, teach them the workings of certain instruments of destruction, and send them home again—a year older, and of no greater value to peacetime society than they were before. Fortunately there is a proved and workable alternative.

After the Armistice in the last war, while our troops were waiting in France for transportation home, the Army inaugurated a huge educational program, with its own schools, extension courses, and even an Army University. The purpose was not only to keep the men occupied but to prepare them for jobs when they returned. The result gave us a wholly new conception of what national training can mean.

In that vast experiment each man had complete liberty to select his studies. Subjects ranged from automobile repairing to Greek grammar, from sign painting to dentistry. In the A.E.F. University at Beaune, laboratories in chemistry, physics, bacteriology, medicine, engineering, and music were supplied largely out of Army resources, and at astonishingly low cost. The main educational effort, however, was carried on in regiments and divisions, wherever they were scattered. These educational opportunities—except for the training of

illiterates—were purely voluntary; and yet they proved so popular that the peak found three-fourths of the Army's two million men enrolled.

Mobilization had revealed that such training was a basic need. An appalling number of our young men were not in proper physical condition. Far more than half the men of the A.E.F. were without adequate training for any trade or profession. An astounding number of native-born citizens were illiterate; many foreign-born Americans could not read, write, or in some cases even understand, the English language.

The Army showed that these national weaknesses could be corrected. It showed how rich potentially the manhood of our nation is, and how quickly it responds to regular life and scientific care. The soldiers in general enjoyed such health as is the rule in no other community. The total discipline of their life—regular hours, rational diet, and decorum of conduct—so quickened their intellectual capacities that those who taught them wondered at their eagerness and ability to learn.

No one could watch this work, as I did, without being shocked at our stupidity in providing such opportunities only as an afterthought, and only because we were at war. Everything the Army taught in its improvised schools was useful to the soldier, but twenty times as useful to the citizen.

When we came home we brought with us a vision of adapting this new kind of national training to peacetime needs. But in the years that followed our plans fell on deaf ears.

Now once again the world is in turmoil. Once again we are preparing to mobilize our young men. Those of us who remember the lessons of the last war hope our people will compel, this time, a true national training, training for peace as well as for war. Certainly there is no reason to suppose that the need for such broadened training is less today than it was twenty years ago. Indeed, it appears far greater.

The A.E.F. demonstrated the Army's value as a vast university of citizenship. Let us utilize now what we discovered then. If the compulsory training period is to be twelve months, the first half of that year should be given over to military science and physical development; for the remainder

of the time, at least half the day should be free for general study. In establishing the curriculum it is absolutely essential that each man, with the exception of illiterates and unassimilated foreign born, be allowed complete liberty to select the subjects he believes would be most useful to him. To dictate what shall be studied would be to defeat the broader purposes of the program. If a man looks forward to business, to agriculture, to industry, to art, then his training should help him toward that career. If he expects to attend college, the training should take the place of his freshman year.

The practical studies in trades or professions, offered under army discipline, would teach habits of application at the moment when young men most need to learn them. The average student in college not only wastes the greater part of his time, but is extremely careless in his diet and is far below the proper physical state. Army life provides for every soldier a finer system of physical training than even athletes in college usually submit themselves to.

The most direct advantage in such a plan would be for the neglected majority who at present receive no high school training at all, nor even much elementary education. To insure for them a reasonable start in life would be worth any cost and any effort. In no other way can this vast body of each generation be sought out in the small town, on the farm, in the overcrowded city, and taught the things essential to each individual case. To care for these young men would be really to train our nation.

I wish every boy in the country could have this year of training just after high school age. What a great opportunity for all our boys to meet at least for one year on terms of absolute democracy! I should like to see the young conservative bunking in with the young radical. Whatever became of their theories later, they would know each other as human beings. I should like the boys from one section of the country to do their year of service in another section.

Today the illiterate keeps to himself, and the foreign born associates with others of his origin. Both classes thus avoid that social criticism which would urge them toward complete

citizenship. Economic and social pressure tends actually to segregate them. Unless some strenuous effort is made to weld these groups into the rest of the country, there is no likelihood of change.

A system of national training which would develop latent powers of the individual would shortly transform our national life. It would be costly, but no more so than our handouts to relieve the unemployed, part of whose trouble comes from our failure to give them in the first place a suitable education. Indeed, the plan would take the place of much expensive effort, for we now spend billions with little or no guarantee that those temporarily relieved are to any degree put in a position to help themselves.

The cost of adding an adequate educational corps in training camps would not be prohibitive. Army personnel and facilities could be adapted most economically to the program. I would stake whatever reputation I may have as an educator on the statement that no civilian organization on earth could provide so good an education at such low cost.

I have been told that this plan would be a dangerous instrument in the hands of the militaristic. I believe the exact opposite—that it would discourage extreme militarism. In our country, where the Army is not considered a class career, the threat of military dominance is remote, but the one sure way to encourage militarism is to limit our soldiers to nothing but militaristic occupations, thus making it difficult for them to take their places later in peacetime society. A man who has health and a fair chance, with full play for his mind, is likely to have good humor also, and the spirit of comradeship and helpfulness without which no society can hold together.

Under the stimulus of national danger, we must look forward to new horizons of national advancement. We must bring men together for training in the *total* defense of their homes—against possible enemies on sea or land, and against disease, ignorance, and incompetency. Such an effort would not only make us invincible in war, but would immeasurably strengthen and enrich our nation in peace. It is the great opportunity of our generation. We must not let it pass.

Should Religion Be Taught in Our Schools?

By ROBERT S. CLIFTON

CHARACTERISTIC of American education in not facing and dealing with the really fundamental in man's experience has been its failure to deal with religion. As if by magic students are expected to learn of the greater things in life from the lesser! Controversial subjects, however important, must not be taught! Actually the more controversial an important subject, the more vital to study all available and relevant information about it—hence the more need for the impartial approach liberal education offers.

In our present turmoil religion is of paramount importance to the individual, to our democracy, to the whole world. The aggression of non-Christian nations and their efforts to replace Christion morality with a Nietzschean transvaluation of values can be met successfully only by a living, vital Christianity. And yet how can America profess to be Christian when a recent survey shows that 16,000,000 of the 30,000,000 children between the ages of five and seventeen are receiving no religious instruction whatsoever! Ignorance of religion will never lead people to become religious, especially in our present society.

In our overly scientific, materialistic age religion provides the balance man needs. His sense of individuality makes him crave religion desperately, as it always has; without religion his life is less rich, less significant. Modern empirical rationalism is no substitute; man must believe that he as an individual partakes in some measure of the Divine. Denied a religious outlet for his vitality, finding his strongest emotions frustrated, man rebels, turns his energy into hate, creates fascism—as antireligious as it is antidemocratic. I am not implying that this is the sole cause of fascism; but if democracy and religion are to survive in America, there must be

more emphasis on sound moral and religious values to combat the many pictures of shallow, selfish, insufficient living which our movies, radio, and popular magazines hold up to us as natural and desirable. Religious teaching in our schools could be an important factor in the return of religion to the life of man.

II

In spite of this great need for religion, very little has been offered by the schools in the way of religious instruction. Of course the Roman Catholics have parochial schools. A few Protestant summer Bible schools have made their appearance as well as some weekly church schools, but all of these solutions are denominational. In nondenominational schools occasional Bible readings and "ethics" classes are too much in the line of a direct attack to be successful. Some more subtle approach must be employed; the "pill" method won't work. It is not a "code" of ethics, but a method of adjustment that is needed; we need standards by which to judge and the thinking power with which to apply them. Man can't be forced to obey a code of ethics; he must be led to see what is right and want to do it, to love right doing even as Jesus did.

Our present situation has come about for a number of reasons. First, there is the pitfall of denominationalism; educators have realized that many who urge religious training in the schools are really seeking to indoctrinate. Even if a broad, impartial approach is taken, one problem alone—that of the "inspired word of the Bible" as against the modern position of "higher criticism"—is held to be enough to cause trouble.

Second, there is the traditional and wise separation of Church and State which in spite of its many fine results has unfortunately led many schools to avoid the fact of God altogether. This trouble is not caused by a lack of foresight on the part of our ancestors; it can be traced to ourselves. We have neglected the task of bringing our religious, social, economic, and political institutions up to something like the same level of objectivity and efficiency which has been reached by

science and technology. The humanitarian ideal, guided by technology, is all very well; but by neglecting man's spiritual nature it becomes an insufficient solution.

The third cause can be traced to a general inertia regarding such important matters. In this case it is the shameful lack of realization of the important place religion has in a democracy. People have refused to recognize certain of the changes that have taken place in our lives since the time of our fathers; and as a result no appreciable effort to revise education to meet these changes has been made.

In omitting the Scriptures from our public schools because they are partisan and in teaching only the "facts of life," we have forgotten that there is a plane of religious reality the existence of which experimental science can never prove or disprove. A person highly educated in "factual" knowledge but lacking ethical and religious standards is a very dangerous person; a citizenry well informed but lacking standards of judgment is a danger to itself.

III

I feel it is worth some effort to see how these three difficulties have been sufficient practically to eliminate religious teaching from American education. The history of its declining influence, however, is such a long and complicated one that in this article I can cite only a few indications of it. It must be recognized as a symptom of a wider change—the change from a land where religion and the Glory of God occupied the center of man's thoughts to one where they now occupy a very minor position. Each successive change in American life has left its imprint on the school system and hence on the plastic consciousness of the American public.

A change was becoming evident even before the American Revolution. In 1665 the most popular book in the colonies had been Michael Wigglesworth's *The Day of Doom*; a century later it was Benjamin Franklin's *The Way of Wealth*. "Honesty is the best *policy*," says Poor Richard.

In 1710 Cotton Mather, writing on *The Duties of Schoolmasters*, asserted the following:

If grammar schools have holy and learned men set over them, not only the brains, but also the souls of children might be enriched, and the work both of learning and of grace be early commenced in them. In order to do this, let it be proposed, that you not only pray with your scholars daily, but also take occasion frequently to inculcate the lessons of piety in the children.

Yet a little over a century later the great educator Horace Mann, writing on the value of education is forced to admit that proving oneself "capable of earning more money for one's employer is a testimonial better than a diploma from all the colleges." The "success" story had begun.

The business triumph after the Civil War was so decisive that it swept schools and educators right along with it. A way of life was taught that made a fetish of personal success. Business values were no longer widely questioned—anything done in the name of "legitimate" profit became *good,* and in the pursuit of wealth the social good was necessarily involved. Worst of all, this attitude acquired much religious sanction; such rapid "progress" was doubtless pleasing to God.

There was an even larger change from the nineteenth to the twentieth century. Up until 1867 it was so traditional to found colleges with religious connections that the proposal to found Cornell free from any religious affiliation was fiercely attacked. Parents were even warned to keep their children free from contamination! There was still evident some feeling against a secular domination of education.

In the present century, however, schools have left the problem of religious training to the home; and the home has returned the compliment. Nor has the Church with its many divergent interests been able to handle the task alone. It likewise has continued to have less and less significance.

By avoiding the dangers of teaching religion we have opened the way for a far greater peril. Ignorance of religion and the tendency to accept local ethical standards uncritically is increasing in our land. Too many of our youth are being denied both their right to know what great religious and

ethical leaders have taught and their right to expert guidance in an examination of these truths. Inasmuch as religion and ethics are treated as fields of knowledge, they have as much right to a place in our schools as, for example, does economics. One function of liberal education is to conduct an impartial inquiry into truth and knowledge of all sorts.

Viewed from a larger perspective, the decline of religious emphasis in education can be traced to the general tendency of the Western world to neglect religious truth in favor of scientific truth. The nineteenth century witnessed a tremendous effort on the part of Western man to decide whether traditional religion and morality were valid. As early as 1700 the Deists had questioned and denied the validity of the Scriptures. By 1860 Newtonian science and technological truth were battling against humanism and the Hellenic-Hebraic spiritual order. Since that time the two opponents have drawn further and further apart.

Now in the twentieth century the matter-of-fact, nonethical spirit of science has practically become a religion in itself. Such a hold has science that many suspect religious insight as dishonest and are skeptical of moral wisdom; "scientific" has become a synonym for "good." Such people forget that even in science certain basic assumptions, such as that reality is essentially rational, must be accepted on faith and that religion is as firmly established on religious experience as science on scientific experience. Nor can the mere fact that science cannot discover religious truth be construed to point to its absence.

This popular attitude, contrary to the true spirit of science, has become dangerous. Since the Renaissance and the Reformation, man has been encouraged by the use of reason, by science, and by his fathoming of nature to believe himself nature's master. Hence he has been encouraged to throw off his allegiance to God, and, substituting earthly ends for heavenly ones, thrive by his own might over nature. Having overthrown every authority above him, man accepted Dar-

winism but grasped only partially the principles of laissez-faire and evolution. Not seeing that science and religion were closely united and complemented one another, man fell easy prey to the belief that natural and determined forces ruled the world, that man was an insignificant organism destined to be pushed around. He did not see that, as Huxley finally admitted, moral law is the opposite of natural law, and the source of ethical principles apart from that of natural facts. The popular conception was that it would be foolish for man to meddle, that he must drift and not worry about how things would work out. It was a short step to the idea that order was merely a dream of man and ethics and religion a delusion; for if this deterministic view is accepted, there is little difference between right and wrong. A man's good actions are not even his own.

IV

In planning for the future we must realize that a new approach is needed. Our whole educational program has become too specialized—too little integrated for the immature minds of our youth. In tearing civilizations apart we have neglected "the most difficult task of all—that of putting together the picture from the scattered pieces in a world of scientific, social, and ethical chaos." [1] As a result of this and of the fact that educational emphasis has been largely on the many phases of the present scene, many finish even college education with no meaningful perspective to guide them in solving today's urgent problems.

In the 1938 New York Regent's Inquiry this situation was recognized, and a program was suggested for grades seven to twelve which would devote "a greater part of the time to the study of general science, human relations, community life, world history, general mathematics, and the arts—subjects which cover matters of direct value and interest to the aver-

---

[1] *Education for American Life,* Report of the New York Regent's Inquiry (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938), p. 28.

age American citizen." [2] By doing this it hoped to develop a knowledge of the great ethical and religious literature and standards of mankind.

Why should it be wrong for religion and science to be included in the same program? Instead of harming the cause of religion, the "higher criticism" of the Scriptures has in reality done it a vast service. It has helped to distinguish the abiding elements of religious thought from the ones due to the limitations of a culture 2,000 years ago, has helped illumine the false parts and outline more clearly the lasting ethical principles.

Under a plan of teaching world history from grades seven to twelve, religion could be taught impartially and seen *not as a special course but in its natural relations to the rest of life.* Some private schools have already in operation just such a plan of education. For two years I have been teaching seventh- and eighth-grade history and literature in a school that has a sequential, correlated curriculum based on a six-year study of the life of man from ancient beginnings to our present scene. In such a survey of history religious beliefs and practices occupy an important place. The lives and experiences of great religious figures, such as St. Francis and St. Paul, are studied as well as their teachings—the whole considered as a part of the life of the time. In this way a wholesome, impartial emphasis has been placed on the teaching of religious principles without causing any offense to members of Jewish, Catholic, or Protestant faiths. All this is not a substitute for religious experience, merely an introduction.

In both grades part of each year is spent studying the Old and New Testaments as they appear in their natural place in world civilization. The Old Testament is approached both as history and as an interesting story of the beginnings of our own religion. A moderate application of "higher criticism" helps to clarify much of this and does not tend to promote

---

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 46.

skepticism in the students. The moral insight of the prophets is as effective applied to modern life as it was in their own day. Comparative anthropology, mythology, religion, literature, and folklore show the progressive character of religious ideas and beliefs and how the Israelites rose (in the same fashion as many other races) from pantheism and polytheism to a purely monotheistic belief. In this process religious and moral truths are freed from clinging myths and superstitions and stand out more validly than before.

A comparison of the sacred writings of the ancient civilizations brings out that our own are the most beautiful and valuable and the fruit of the fullest religious development ever attained by man. The development of the Hebraic idea of God from the tribal Jehovah, one God among many local gods, to the idea of a just ruler over the whole earth as expressed by the later prophets is also paralleled in the history of other noble races. Finally in the New Testament the philosophy of the "chosen people" is supplanted by the belief in a Universal Father and universal brotherhood—a belief so necessary in the world today.

In the eighth grade two main religious topics are developed. First we view the rise of Christianity and its triumph over Roman and "mystery" religions. Then with the New Testament as our guide we study the life of Christ and see how His teachings apply to life then and now. His personal example of a love for His fellowmen so complete that it made necessary His martyrdom is seen to be the basis of any worthy reform. Needless to say, many interesting and valuable class discussions develop from this work.

Last year, as a climax to the year's studies, the class wrote, produced, and acted a full-length play depicting the triumph of Christianity in totalitarian Rome—a striking parallel to our present struggle. As well as demonstrating the fallacies of the totalitarian philosophy that sacrifices and submerges the citizen for the perpetuation of the State, this play helped to create an appreciation of our democratic philosophy. Pupils could never understimate the importance of the part

of religion as a bulwark against totalitarianism after having participated in work of this sort.

V

The problem of the relation of Church and State to education has been handled in different ways by different countries. In Russia the power of religion as we know it has been effectively eliminated; in Germany every effort is being made to break whatever power it may have left over the people and to substitute a religion of emperor worship. In a totalitarian state there can be only one loyalty; both religion and education are but tools of the State. In this role they can have little Christian influence.

In America we are arriving at a similar result by the opposite process. Instead of Church and State being combined, they are so separated that a great gulf has grown up between material and spiritual spheres. Religious and ethical principles may be given lip-service, but few think seriously of applying them in business and "practical" politics. Some religions have even encouraged these separate spheres of influence and have admitted that ethical judgments have no place in statecraft.

There is a great danger in this course. As Dostoevsky pointed out over fifty years ago in *The Brothers Karamazov,* a separation of the idea of God from man's everyday life would be fatal to civilization. In order for the Devil to triumph:

> I maintain that nothing need be destroyed, that *we only need to destroy the idea of God in man,* that's how we have to set to work. . . . As soon as men have all of them denied God—and I believe that period, analogous with geological periods, will come to pass—the old conception of the universe will fall of itself without cannibalism and what's more the *old morality*. . . . Man will be lifted up with a spirit of divine Titanic pride and the *man-god* will appear.

Dostoevsky's prophecy is coming true in part of the world; let us not allow it any foothold in America.

The Place of the University Library in the Modern World*

By CARL M. WHITE

TAKE a central street, follow it through, and you will cross half the streets in the city. Take as your theme the university library, trace it through the modern world, and the discussion will bear, one way or another, on libraries of all types. Such at least will be my assumption. However, time will not permit us to pause at each street corner and follow implications in every direction. I shall, therefore, concentrate attention on the university library and shall trust that it will be clear as we proceed that much of what is to be said applies to other types of libraries as well, even if we do not pause long enough to make the application.

My central thesis is that the university library—and here is the first street corner—performs certain functions which are indispensable in the modern world. I shall try to name some of them.

One of the tasks of the university library is to enable man to read the meaning of life today in the wide context of the recorded experience of the entire race. With the aid of a collection of books built up with this object in view, children of the race are able to learn in the span of a few hours lessons which the Euclids and the Newtons, the Pasteurs and the Mendels spent patient lifetimes in learning. The peculiar value of a library in thus conserving human experience lies in the fact that it serves as an effective means of overcoming a human, all too human limitation. Each individual begins life with a biological structure, including a central nervous system, which enables him to learn and remember. But in spite of what our Platos and Wordsworths have written about ideas which we have from birth with "trailing clouds" of antecedent glory,

* Reprinted from *A.L.A. Bulletin*, Sept. 1, 1940.

human memory seems, for all practical purposes, to be limited pretty definitely to the lifetime of a single nervous system: the wisdom held within the wisest brain dies with it unless it has been written down on something.[1] Each child of each new generation has to learn all he ever knows in his allotted three score years and ten. Then we begin all over again. Our collections of recorded experience are thus the nearest thing to a memory mankind has; it is through them—the materials in the world's libraries—that the lessons man learns, the tragedies he enacts, the songs he sings, are passed along to those who survive him. Therefore, if the college sophomore today is able to chuckle at the Ptolemys who honestly believed that the earth is flat and stationary, at the Aristotles who believed that a principle of heaviness made some things fall and a principle of levity made other things float or rise, at the superstition that plagues which swept away whole populations were due to the stars or to the wrath of God, it is not necessarily because the sophomore is more brilliant than Ptolemy or Aristotle or the faculty of the University of Paris[2] in the fourteenth century, but because the sophomore—or his teacher—has had access to libraries not available in the ancient and medieval world. This technique of preserving what we wish to remember from one age to another by means of written records is in large measure responsible for civilization as we find it in the modern world. It is a cultural technique which, having once been learned, will undoubtedly never be abandoned by the race. If the technique should be abandoned and libraries such as those built up to serve universities should vanish

[1] A colleague points out that this statement, considered apart from its context, can easily be misconstrued. Previously acquired knowledge is transmitted in many ways—by oral instruction from parents and teachers, by observing master craftsmen, etc. My purpose is not to deny the existence of other means of transmitting such knowledge, but to depict the role of the library; and, to do so, it seemed necessary to show how the library serves as a means of overcoming some of the limitations of that psychological operation which we call memory.

[2] For a discussion of the tractate on the Black Death drawn up by the Faculty of Medicine of the University of Paris at the command of King Philip VI, see A. M. Campbell, *Black Death and Men of Learning* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1931).

from the earth, we may be sure that the modern world as we know it will vanish with them.

Not only is the university library a means of conserving the past, it is also a means of understanding the present. From where the university librarian is sitting, it is scarcely more accurate to say that the modern world contains written records than it is to say, conversely, that the written word—in particular the printed word—contains the modern world. A German writer speaks of this age of print and print-minded people as a *Buch und Lesen Kultur*. The experimental scientist keeps his printed manual of methods close to his elbow, the pharmacist his printed formulary, the engineer his printed table of logarithms. Universities and public utilities, legislative bodies and labor unions are creatures which draw the breath of corporate life from print. Right and wrong, law and order are entities defined in print. Justice is administered with the aid of printed legal codes, commentaries, and reporter series. The course of the nation's daily business is shaped by printed investors' services, printed advertising columns, and printed government regulations. The fruit grower reads the printed weather forecasts; the tobacco farmer reads releases and reports from various bureaus in Washington; and everybody reads the printed news from Europe and the Orient. Warring factions even fight with printed weapons and count life itself less dear than theses nailed to the doors of public places and declarations of ideals printed in their children's school books.

This structure of print—this house built of books which is the modern world—is far too vast, too complex to be mastered by one man in a single lifetime. The corner groceryman reads, grasps a fragment of knowledge, and that is the world as he understands it. The professor of economics reads more, grasps a larger fragment, and that is the world as he understands it. But neither world is the same as that of the corner druggist or that of the professor of pharmacology. There was a day in the infancy of the arts and sciences when this partial grasp of the full range of the knowledge of the times

would have been disturbing, especially to the intelligentsia. From Aristotle through Bacon to the founders of modern encyclopedias men have taken all knowledge as their province and have tried to compress "all books into one"; but, as knowledge has increased, even the learned have despaired of being walking encyclopedias and encyclopedias content themselves with the claim of being merely simplified introductions to the complete volume of human knowledge. The complete volume —where is it to be found? In no one mind, in no one book; nowhere quite so completely as in the world's great libraries.

This circumstance explains the indispensable role of the library in higher education. Primitive society entrusted the ritual of inducting the youth of the tribe into the circle of the mature to their priests and sages, and these teachers were able, out of the abundance of wisdom carried in their own heads, fully to acquaint the neophyte with his limited world. Modern society entrusts a similar task to its college and university teachers and librarians, but the staggering sum of knowledge which it is theirs to bequeath and interpret requires a radically different procedure. Instead of depending on a somewhat static body of personal knowledge, the mentors of youth today depend upon carefully selected and constantly changing collections of library materials augmented by special items borrowed from the four corners of the earth. And broadly speaking, the more advanced the work the more implicit is the dependence of teacher and student alike on the library.

Partly by way of illustrating the role of the university library in inducting youth into the modern world but chiefly because the point cannot be omitted from a discussion of this kind, let us turn our attention to the professions. The red and white pole in front of the barber shop is a reminder of the day when the barber and the surgeon did their work under the same roof. Skill in the use of cutting instruments was necessary then, as now. But in time, surgery developed a body of specialized knowledge which linked it with such fields as anatomy and physiology. As a result, skill in the use of cutting instruments became insufficient, and the prospective surgeon

transferred his training to the college of surgeons or the school of medicine where specialized knowledge became available which he could never expect to have acquired through practical experience in a barber shop.

As this elliptical example suggests, a profession requires specialized training and this training, while it may involve manual skill and practical experience, is also of the sort we call intellectual. That is to say, the profession is based on a body of special knowledge which requires for its mastery prolonged study by mature minds. Professions in this sense were unknown to the ancients.[3] Greece had its lawyers but they were citizens without formal training. The medical practitioner was sometimes slightly more of a specialist, but the most he could boast in the way of training was practice under someone with wider experience. It was not until the twelfth and thirteenth centuries that professions considered as vocations resting on a profound intellectual culture arose. By that time, a specialized body of knowledge in theology and philosophy, medicine, civil and ecclesiastical law, and classical literature had developed which created a need for a type of training not afforded by the cathedral schools and monasteries. The resultant social pressure, expressed in part in the rise of guilds, explains in greater part the rise of the universities.[4] The accumulated knowledge to be studied was very accessible and was to remain so until after the middle of the fifteenth century. Nevertheless, there seems to be some little justification historically for saying that the professions, as we are accustomed to think of them, did not emerge until there had been created what it is today a function of the university library to supply—a body of knowledge which requires for its mastery prolonged study by mature minds. As new professions have emerged, they have turned to the universities to

---

[3] A. M. Carr-Saunders, "Professions," *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences* (New York: Macmillan, 1934), Vol. 12, pp. 476-80.

[4] P. R. Cole, *History of Educational Thought* (London: Oxford University Press, 1931), pp. 149-50. See also A. M. Carr-Saunders and P. A. Wilson, *The Professions* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1933), pp. 289, 308.

provide the preliminary training required. This steady tendency is not explained by the superiority of the men in the universities over practicing members of the professions, but by the presence in the universities of related fields of learning and facilities such as those found in the university libraries.[5]

Early in the seventeenth century Francis Bacon introduced the empirical method which, unlike the deductive method of the scholastics, was designed to increase the extent, rather than to establish the certainty, of knowledge. This new method, reinforced by the Cartesian affirmation of the supremacy of reason and the invariability of the laws of nature and refined as time went on by the experimental sciences, has perhaps more than any other intellectual development shaped the course of the modern world. Toward the end of the eighteenth century, and especially in the first decade of the nineteenth century, the doctrine was advanced in Germany—a bold one for the day—that a university exists primarily for the advancement of learning through scholarly research in all fields. As a corollary, it was asserted that the modern state should guarantee the university the freedom and the support it needs to perform this service to society.[6] The famous German university tradition of freedom and research, now eclipsed by the swastika, was thus launched, and the idea spread. Today, after a century

---

[5] "Throughout the period of its origins," writes C. H. Haskins, "the medieval university had no libraries, laboratories or museums, no endowment or buildings of its own. . . . The medieval university was, in the fine old phrase of Pasquier, 'built of men'—*batie en hommes*." See his *Rise of Universities* (New York: Holt, 1923, pp. 4-5). This statement, accurate within limits, gives an emphasis which is misleading. Actually a body of specialized knowledge, in addition to being systematized, was being committed to writing; it was not left to the vagaries of memory and oral tradition as would have been the case if these universities had been "built of men" and nothing more. What the author means, I judge, is that there were no libraries in the form in which they exist in the twentieth century. The statement as it stands, therefore, is a half-truth only and as such is about as accurate as saying that buggies in the nineteenth century operated without power.

[6] E. Y. Hartshorne, "The German Universities and the Government," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CC (November 1938), 210-34. See also the article, "Academic Freedom," by H. W. Tyler and E. P. Cheyney in the same volume, pp. 102-18.

and a half, the fostering of systematic research, as well as the training of research workers, is universally accepted as one of the major functions of the university.[7]

But while there is agreement on every hand that research, including the training of investigators, is a function of the university, the layman's grasp of the role of the library in research is often disappointing. Take scientific investigation, for example. The task of the scientist—isn't it to make discoveries, to find new truth? Well, how can a man make new discoveries by sitting at a table and reading about the discoveries made by someone else?

Of course the answer is that a man cannot qualify as a scientist until he acquires, by reading the published accounts of what other investigators have done, a background of the status of research in his particular field. As he puts together the findings of others and his own observations, some *problem* articulates itself in his thinking. What is the solution? He may stumble on the answer accidentally in his laboratory; but his first step as a rule is to go to the library, pull down his scientific journals and read everything that has been published —whether in America, Europe, or Asia—on the subject under investigation. Then one day—eureka! He has an idea. He experiments. The validity of his hypothesis is established. And the new discovery is ready to be announced.

Back in the nineteenth century, for example, the German chemist, Emil Fischer, inaugurated a campaign of research on the sugars. A few of these sugars were known. They had all been grouped as carbohydrates because each was composed of carbon united with hydrogen and oxygen, the latter in the proportions found in water. They did not contain water as such, however, and about the only clue to the structure of these compounds recorded in the literature was a group of observations of an Italian chemist, Kiliani. Some years later an investigator at Leipzig, Curtius, working in another field and unrelated, made hydrozoic acid and recorded a more or less

[7] Abraham Flexner, *Universities: American, English, German* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1930).

incidental observation which Fischer seized upon as a second clue. It was the work of these two chemists, as recorded in the literature, one a German and the other an Italian, that furnished the great chemist the hypothesis he had so sorely needed. He tested the hypothesis through experiment, sugars were separated from one another and from adventitious materials, and the way was open for writing a new chapter in the absorbing story of chemistry.[8] By thus bringing together the best thought of men of all lands, of all times, the published literature thus enabled the investigator to find the precise clue he needed and to enlarge the circumference of human knowledge. In short, the library might be said to be the first and the last tool of research. That is to say, the university librarian, if he is to do his part in economizing scholarly effort, must bring to a particular point in space—the chemistry library, let us say—all of the works, no matter when or where published, which bear significantly on the problem under investigation; and the scholar, in his turn, must conclude his investigation by writing up his results so that they become accessible to the next investigator through the research library. The recording and publication of results are essential phases of research effort if it is to mean anything more than child's play; and the accumulation of these results in libraries, a rather expensive process, is the price society pays to conserve its brains.

What I have said so far might be taken to mean that a university library can be studied in a vacuum, as it were, separate from the institution of which it is a part. It cannot. The university library is one of the means by which the program of the university as a whole is implemented, and in the last analysis, therefore, the place of the university library in the modern world is inseparable from the place of the university in the modern world. The rest of the discussion will attempt to envisage the university library in this wider perspective.

In an address entitled "The Soul of a People," [9] a learned

---

[8] I am indebted to my colleague, Professor F. K. Cameron, for this illustration.

[9] R. B. H. Haldane, *Universities and National Life; Four Addresses to Students* (London: John Murray, 1912), pp. 1-30.

British statesman, Viscount Haldane, once said, ". . . it is in the universities with their power over the mind, greater in the end than the power of the government or of any church, that we see how the soul of a people at its highest mirrors itself." In brief, "The development of the true spirit of the university among a people is a good measure of the development of its soul and consequently of its civilization." Here is an arresting claim made on behalf of the university. Is that claim pure rhetoric? If not, what is it about a university that makes it an index to the standard of civilization a people has attained, and what, if anything, does it have to do with libraries?

Suppose we turn back the pages of time eight hundred years and look for a moment at the cultural environment in which the first universities in Western Europe made their appearance.[10] The dominant mental attitude of the twelfth century is expressed in the famous dictum of Anselm, *Credo ut intelligam*—I believe that I may know. Education was conceived in accordance with this dictum as a process, not of developing intellectual independence, but of indoctrination. Intellectual effort was expended, not to find out the truth but to rationalize dogma. Intelligence, reason, was subordinated to authority. This subjection sprang from a deep-seated distrust of human intelligence: I believe in order that I may know. Faith and obedience were the law of life, the guarantors of human welfare here and hereafter.

Peter Abelard, the man who inaugurated the university

---

[10] I am following Hastings Rashdall who treats the Universities of Paris and Bologna, both of which arose late in the twelfth century, as the models of universities of a later date. See his *Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, edited by F. M. Powicke and A. B. Emden (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1936), 3 vols. The School of Medicine at Salerno has some of the marks of a university and was earlier than either Paris or Bologna. The museum of Alexandria is considered by some as the first university in the modern sense of the word. The institution was established, controlled, and supported by the king, was the home of critical research, and was served by a library of 700,000 works, which "formed the record of all human thought." See S. S. Laurie, *Rise and Early Constitution of Universities* (New York: Appleton, 1892), p. 5; J. P. Mahaffy, *Greek Life and Thought from the Age of Alexander to the Roman Conquest* (London: Macmillan, 1887), pp. 191-97.

movement,[11] found this intellectual climate unwholesome. He combated publicly the teachings of his great master, William of Champeaux, because his respect for the truth proved stronger than his respect for authority. He went further. In conversation with some fellow students he dared suggest that educated men ought to be able to go directly to the sources of knowledge (in this case the Scriptures) and from the original sources find out the truth themselves instead of having to depend on revelations delivered from the chair of authority.[12] His fellow students received the unheard-of doctrine with derision. Challenged to put the novel idea into practice, he presented his own exegesis of a work assigned him by his critics, shocked them by his success, soon attracted throngs of students in spite of some trouble with the church authorities, and in spirit and method became the forerunner of the university professor of the present day.

Abelard taught grammar, dialectics, and theology—shopworn subjects of the scholastic period—but into whatever field he led his students, he kept the books open. Everything was to be discussed, explained; there were no secrets to be held back, no mysteries to be left unexamined. One of his critics complained bitterly that the human mind was "usurping" rights which did not belong to it and was intruding itself everywhere.[13] This was preposterous indeed, world-shaking—a man who, though reverent, nevertheless acknowledged in intellectual matters no authority except the right of truth to command obedience, who even in a day of feudal devotion to kinsman, ally, and school placed no loyalty above loyalty to truth, who dared himself and allowed others to approach the

---

[11] The Cathedral School of Paris in which Abelard taught eventually developed into the University of Paris, the earliest and greatest university of Northern Europe. But while Abelard initiated the intellectual movement which produced the university, he did not himself found a university. *Cf.* Rashdall, *op. cit.*, 1:43-44; also Gabriel Compayré, *Abelard and the Origin and Early History of Universities* (New York: Scribner's, 1893), p. 18.

[12] Rashdall, *op. cit.*, 1:53.

[13] Compayré, *op. cit.*, pp. 19-20.

sacred sources of truth without first receiving the vestment of "professor."

This trickle of emancipated intelligence[14] over the solid embankment of medieval thought gathered behind it all the strength of the enthusiasm for learning which was then quietly but steadily rising, cut deeper, produced in the next generation the first university west of the Alps, and after long years widened into the broad current of intellectual freedom, intellectual impartiality, freedom of inquiry, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, which have been among the outstanding characteristics of Western culture. When Haldane speaks of the "true spirit of the university," he probably has in mind these priceless and hard-won freedoms.[15] It is this stream of influence, going back to the time of Abelard and beyond him to a spring deep in human nature—the love of freedom, the indestructible aspiration of the human spirit to be unshackled and self-reliant—that has nourished the university movement from the twelfth to the twentieth century.

Unless I am mistaken, the library movement of the nineteenth century is fed by the same stream. Once human intelligence was emancipated and, three centuries later, given wings by Gutenberg, only two things stood in the way of taking the university to the people and to their children—long hours of work and illiteracy. The industrial and mechanical revolutions made shorter hours and more leisure possible and the accompanying social revolution produced a middle class capable of reading. While these things were coming to pass, the public library made its appearance. As I understand it, the intent of the public library movement was to place the cultural opportunities of the few who attended colleges and univer-

---

[14] Lest too much credit be ascribed to one man, it should be emphasized that Anselm, Scotus Erigena, and Roscellinus prepared the way for Abelard, while the mounting lay interest in learning made of the intellectual movement with which his name is associated considerably more than the work of a single individual.

[15] He seems to suggest also that man had perhaps not quite come into his own until he created the modern world and that the best in the modern world is reflected—mirrored, to use his phrase—in the spirit of the university.

sities within the reach of the many who did not. If this is a fair statement, it is perhaps not too much to say that the pioneer librarians looked upon the public library movement as, in a sense, a phase of the university movement. Melvil Dewey once referred to Gutenberg as the real founder of university extension,[16] and an audience of librarians need not be reminded of the popularity of the term "people's university" in the nineteenth century. Times have changed. Here and there public libraries have created the impression, rightly or wrongly, that their work lies more in the recreational or entertainment field than in the educational field, and public libraries and university libraries have drifted apart. Public librarians will themselves decide, in the light of needs as they find them, whether the more fruitful conception of the public library is that of the people's university—an institution which in aim and method is basically educational—but I am nevertheless prompted to raise the question: Is the present relation between universities and public libraries giving society the best service possible? Would it be mutually disadvantageous for universities in their extension work and public libraries in their adult education work, particularly those public libraries outside metropolitan communities, to plan their programs in closer relation to each other?

We have envisaged the university as an institutional expression of certain priceless and hard-won freedoms, but I am aware that freedom, liberty, carries a different meaning to different people. The conception of the natural rights of man, an outgrowth of eighteenth-century individualism, has led to an easy but questionable separation of the rights of freedom from the responsibilities of freedom. Pushed to its extreme, this separation confronts us with such sophistical problems as: Shall the right of the irresponsible or mentally immature to thrust ill-advised utterances on a hapless public be condoned? Shall the skilled manipulator of mass opinion be allowed to further the interests of his pressure group at the expense of

[16] Melvil Dewey, "The Place of the Library in Education," National Education Association, *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, 1901, p. 858.

society as a whole? Now society itself seems to have a right in these matters—a right, namely, to expect its spokesmen above all to be honest and at least to try to be as intelligent as they are noisy. Accordingly, the university, in training the future leaders of society, encourages its students—not always with success—to assume personal responsibility for getting at the truth, for seeing all sides of a problem, before claiming the right of the printing press or soap box to convert others to their views. In short, the emancipation of human intelligence which underlies the historical development of our universities has meant, and still means, not the complete elimination of restraint, but an ideal of enlightened living—an ideal, let us remember, which cannot be divorced from intellectual integrity. Thomas Huxley, that stalwart champion of science, illustrates this inseparability when he declares the aims of his life to be "to smite all humbugs, however big; to give a nobler tone to science; to set an example of total abstinence from petty personal controversies and of toleration of everything but lying." [17] In the ideal university, he says elsewhere, the very air that is breathed "should be charged with that enthusiasm for truth, that fanaticism for veracity, which is a greater possession than much learning. . . ." [18]

To tie the threads together, the university movement and the library movement rest alike on an honest desire to get at the truth, on confidence in human intelligence, by its own devices, to find its way to truth, and on a conviction that the welfare of humanity rests in the end on the side of truth—principles as old as the Greek conception that intelligence is the law of life and the early Christian conception of the dignity and worth of the individual. Each of these principles is in our day being challenged. Books have been burned, not because they have been shown to be untrue, but because they conflict with official opinion. Even intellectual honesty has

---

[17] Quoted by R. A. Gregory, *Discovery; or the Spirit and Service of Science* (New York: Macmillan, 1936), p. 10.

[18] T. H. Huxley, *Science and Culture and Other Essays* (New York: Appleton, 1884), p. 45.

been signed away in fascist oaths or sent away to concentration camps, while the lie has become a conspicuous instrument of public policy. Whole nations have willingly or unwillingly acted on the proposition that the problems facing the world cannot be solved by intelligence, reason, and have resorted to force—a tendency so widespread that in the assembly of nations today the democracies sit as minorities.

Thus the pre-university spirit of the twelfth century seems to be returning. Once more we see education conceived as a process, not of developing intellectual independence, but of indoctrination. The purpose of reading, to use the language of *Mein Kampf,* is not to alter the reader's preconceived ideas but to pick out that which serves his purpose.[19] Accordingly the state sees to it that intellectual effort is expended, not to find the truth but to rationalize dogma.[20] Intelligence, reason, is again subordinated to authority, while human welfare depends upon implicit obedience to the sovereign will of the state, unquestioning faith in a Machiavellian leader.

Looking uneasily about him, the man of the street blames this turning of the wheel back toward the medieval world on the last war, on this nation, or on that despot. These things are not to be taken lightly, but the fundamental causes seem to lie deeper. One writer said some years ago that in the struggle for fugitive ideals such as democracy, liberty, freedom of thinking, access to uncontrolled sources of truth, the race will often lose its nerve.[21] Undoubtedly there are today many in all countries who have faith in these modern ideals; and there are at least some in all countries perhaps who have "lost their nerve." Back of the present political and military conflict, therefore, is a conflict of cultures—a conflict which cuts obliquely across national boundaries, whether belligerent, nonbelligerent, or neutral. And the issue, broader and more fundamental than the question of forms of government, is whether

---

[19] Adolf Hitler, *Mein Kampf* (New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1939), pp. 46-49.

[20] *Cf.* M. A. Pink, *The Defence of Freedom* (London: Macmillan, 1935), p. 17.

[21] *Cf.* J. K. Hart, *Discovery of Intelligence* (New York: Century, 1924), p. 195.

the type of life based on unshackled, self-reliant intelligence can be salvaged.

In America, traditionally the land where mind and conscience are free, we have of late been somewhat puzzled as to how to defend our way of life without employing methods which defeat the end in view. It is true, of course, that a man cannot well defend the right of person by murdering the policeman who takes him into custody; but he can create and help support the legal institution, habeas corpus, without committing murder. Human ideals, in other words, express themselves in institutions and then become public forces which, if sufficiently strong, shield the ideals embedded within them. Institutions decay and ideals themselves change, but so long as an institution performs a function conceded to be necessary for the common good, it is entitled to public support. The libraries of the world perform functions which to all but the primitive—or to those who have "lost their nerve"—seem to be indispensable. They alone enable the race to keep along with it the rich experience it has had during thousands of years. They serve as massive notebooks by means of which a world of knowledge too vast to be held in any head is kept readily accessible, as manuals of procedure for ordering our lives by highly specialized intellectual techniques, as tools of research by which we solve our problems and explore the limitless expanse of the unknown. To the performance of these public services, all libraries contribute; but they are the special functions of the university library. Libraries do these things because they have been created to do so by those who believe in the things of the mind and whose ways of life are ways of intelligence, honesty, truth. In times when instruments of public communication present unparalleled opportunity to manipulate public opinion by presenting selected information or fabrications made of whole cloth, university libraries, where the courses of truth are kept open to the investigator, where in the manner of Abelard no secrets are held back, no mysteries left unexamined—in these times there can be little doubt that such libraries are needed.

This, then, is the story of the university library, and of other libraries which share its responsibilities. It is a story which ends with a solid conviction that the cause of libraries is worthy of active support on the part of all who believe in what we might call the way of the open book. Librarians, of course, are part of this company; and, while special interests will require segregated groupings which will have to be revised from time to time, it is to be hoped—and I, for one, am inclined to assume—that they will continue to feel that they have enough in common to meet together at street corners, speak the same language, avoid walling off their streets entirely from the others, and by their united efforts seek to provide the cause of the open book the type of leadership it deserves.

Adventures of a Workshopper

By HOWARD M. BELL

DURING July of the past summer I had the stimulating experience of serving as a consultant in nine of the summer workshops. The workshops included in my itinerary were those sponsored jointly by the Progressive Education Association and the departments of education of the several colleges and universities.

As a stranger in the field of teacher education, I accepted the assignment with some real misgivings. As I had spent most of my professional life in the field of social research, I had some honest doubts as to whether my experience had given me much of value which I might pass on to teachers.

The cordial manner in which I was received may be largely attributed to the generous hospitality which characterized the workshop directors and their staffs. This, however, could hardly account for the sincere interest, on the part of both students and faculties, in social research and the implications of such research for education.

There were quite a variety of little things which conspired, almost immediately, to make me feel at home. For example, there was the casual and persistent use of the phrase, "needs approach to education." Almost invariably the users of this phrase were thinking about the value of accepting youth needs as a basis for curriculum building and educational planning. This, of course, invited discussion of the whole field of youth studies, and provided opportunities to introduce materials uncovered by the various investigations of the American Youth Commission. Before I realized it, and without any clear idea about how it happened, I was feeling like a veteran workshopper. At long last, I found myself in an atmosphere in which the profitless isolation of social research and educational practice was completely ignored.

To my way of thinking, this was education coming of age.

It represented a long overdue determination to inject a larger measure of realism into the praiseworthy, though often timid and feeble, efforts to develop educational programs which actually prepare young people to face those postschool realities they cannot possibly escape.

Here and there attempts to uncover needs as a basis for planning were unnecessarily complicated by splitting philosophic hairs over needs, desires, wants, and aspirations. As a rule, these pleasant though time-consuming discussions were eventually resolved by a general acceptance of the fact that such things as a capacity to find and hold a job, an ability to get on with people, and a capacity to put leisure time to profitable use were not only real but almost universal needs. The prosecution of the needs approach was also retarded here and there by a disposition to study the matter of youth needs with a microscope. In her zeal to do a complete job, one devotee, when interviewed, had discovered 237 needs. As if the problem is not complicated enough!

Generally speaking, however, members of the workshops were motivated by a balanced understanding and a deep-rooted conviction that all the textbooks do not have all the answers—that some of their answers must come from first-hand studies of the communities in which young people must eventually find themselves as workers and citizens.

Intimately related to the study of youth needs as a basis for educational planning, were three other interests which were particularly prominent in the thinking and discussion of the workshop personnel. These were vocational guidance, community analysis, and the systematic utilization of non-school resources.

Not only did each workshop have a group particularly interested in guidance, but an appreciation of the values of guidance seemed to characterize the thinking of all but the most hard-bitten, subject-minded participants.

For me, this was fortunate as I had just completed a long assignment in the field of occupational adjustment for the American Youth Commission. We had recently completed a

report on the outcomes of a cooperative project with the United States Employment Service which had given us a considerable body of information about guidance, particularly guidance as it relates to the selection, preparation for, and placement in an appropriate occupation field.

The most promising approach to the subject of vocational guidance is to think of it in terms of its relations with the other basic elements of a total program of occupational adjustment—vocational preparation, placement, and occupational research. Vocational guidance, to be genuinely effective, should lead, directly or indirectly, to appropriate preparation and appropriate placement. It should, moreover, be largely controlled by social, economic, and occupational research, particularly the study of conditions present and trends operating in local labor markets.

To a gratifying extent, guidance officers, and a growing proportion of teachers, are appreciating the values and exploring the techniques of community analysis. When this activity spreads, as many think it must in the years ahead, we will have educational programs which are far more likely to meet the needs and satisfy the interests of at least the majority of American youth who are destined to enter the labor market immediately upon leaving secondary schools.

The kind of community study most commonly discussed was the type usually referred to as a general youth survey. The making of such surveys has become increasingly general in recent years. The American Youth Commission has consistently used this device as a means of obtaining the necessary information on which to base its recommendations as to desirable community action. In the course of these studies, particularly in Maryland; Dallas, Texas; and Muncie, Indiana, over 20,000 youth were personally interviewed. If carefully administered and analyzed, studies of this sort inevitably yield a wealth of significant information about both the needs of young people and the ways and means by which schools can contribute to the meeting of these needs.

Other types of community analysis also came in for consid-

eration. Noteworthy among these were occupational surveys, labor market studies, follow-up studies of withdrawals and graduates, and surveys of youth-serving agencies. Many workshop participants had taken one or another of these types of study as a graduate thesis. Others were interested because they were convinced they could not function effectively as teachers or counselors without the aid of the information which such investigations could give them.

In most instances, some phase of community analysis was being undertaken because the teacher was convinced of the value of such activity. Occasionally, however, a teacher was interviewed who was doing it either because it seemed the "thing to do," or because her principal had made the decision for her. One such teacher, who, to her bewilderment, had been given such an assignment, was in an obvious dither. She had always taught Latin, had done reasonably well, and now she was about to make a local survey of occupational opportunities for young workers. She was to use these data as a part of a course in vocational information. How, please, does one go about the business?

Although an effort was made to clarify a few of the fundamental procedures and objectives, it was clear that neither the teacher's background nor her professional interests were likely to be of much help. She looked upon the venture as a dreaded chore. She was going through with it, however, if it killed her. When asked how many hours a week vocational information was to be taught, the answer was that it was to be given only in the first half of the ninth grade and taught one period a week.

Without raising the ancient controversy as to the relative values of Latin and plumbing, it may be suggested that youth are not likely to acquire a realistic understanding of this "world of work" in twenty periods of study during a single semester. There are some 18,000 occupations in modern American industries. About 1,750,000 young workers enter the national labor market every year. In a study recently made by the Youth Commission, almost four out of five (77

per cent) could not be occupationally classified in a public employment office because they had never received the diagnosis, the training, or the work experience which would make such classification possible. They were just applicants. All they wanted, as they left their schools behind them, was a job—any job. When asked what they could do, a common answer was a timid, casual, or defiant "anything!" This, of course, is merely another word for "nothing."

The business of conditioning young people for the crucial experience of making an intelligent search for the kind of work which draws upon their basic occupational potentialities is clearly a school responsibility. This means school guidance programs—programs that are based upon currently and locally meaningful occupational information. Hence the close relationship between guidance and community analysis. One cannot possibly achieve maximum effectiveness without the aid of the other.

Time and effort spent in the social, economic, and occupational analysis of communities yield gratifyingly high returns to both those who gather the material and those who use it. Indeed, it is impossible to be sure which is the more valuable—the product or the process. The product is indispensable if curricula are to be clearly related to life situations, if guidance is to be realistic, and if vocational preparation is to be appropriate. Moreover, the process of gathering, tabulating, and interpreting the data are important elements in any schooling which makes an honest effort to prepare young people for effective living. The possibilities of using supervised pupils in the social studies, English, mathematics, and commercial studies to do the field work, tabulation, and analysis of the data acquired in community studies have hardly been scratched. Experimental work done by the American Youth Commission clearly suggests that such activities offer excellent opportunities to familiarize young people with the problems of community living. Among other things, they serve as devices by which social and industrial exploration can be purposefully systematized.

It is a little self-righteous on the part of the members of any profession, teaching included, to assume that boondoggling is confined to public work projects. A man from Mars would probably see much in common between raking leaves in a wind and adding sums for the purpose of adding sums. Both types of activity insult the intelligence of normal people, and neither contribute anything worth while to the common wealth of the community. Carefully planned types of community analysis in which pupils participate take both of these hurdles, first, by injecting purposefulness into educational activity, and, second, by adding something of real value to the common wealth. Bodies of social and economic data, so acquired, may not be as tangible, let us say, as dams for the control of floods. But they may, if acted upon, be quite as effective in the prevention of frustration and the reduction of waste.

Another enthusiasm of the workshops which might profitably become contagious has to do with the school's utilization of community resources. The resources which can be effectively used by the teachers of local schools differ profoundly in type and extent. Even so, few schools are so completely isolated that educationally valuable exploration is impossible. The first step in such a program is ideally an analysis of the community for the purpose of identifying and classifying its resources. The next step is a schedule of exploration which exposes young people to those cultural, industrial, and recreational institutions with which they should, as future citizens, be familiar.

All these activities—the study of youth needs, the social, economic, and occupational analysis of localities, and the systematic use of nonschool resources have values that are both lasting and specific. Taken together, however, they contribute to the attainment of one of the basic goals of effective schooling: the dissolution of this profitless barrier between the school and the community.

Education has everything to gain and nothing important to lose from rubbing shoulders with life. Schools in increasing

numbers should put an end to their splendid community isolation. Through a more general practice of the kind of activities so enthusiastically endorsed by the summer workshops, schools can do much more than is usually done to cushion the shock which most young people experience as they leave the relatively protected atmospheres of their classrooms and enter the hurly-burly of this none too simple world.

Your Young Men Shall See Visions[1]

By FRANCIS KEPPEL

MORE than seven hundred years ago a student at the University of Paris wrote to a friend: "The wise man takes honest subjects, and chiefly those which bring the greatest profit and honour." Rhetoric, poetry and "that stuff" lead only to the courtesans, whilst "those who follow the science of *dictamen* come to kings and prelates, and are promoted to ecclesiastical honours." [2] Probably long before, and certainly since that time, students have argued the value of certain courses or tutors; they have showered each other with advice, often gratuitous; they have made miserable the lives of countless teachers. They have complained about everything from food to aesthetics, yet only rarely have they dared to commit to paper any plan of their own which would best fit their needs. This paper will present what evidence is available from a limited number of liberal arts colleges.

The field is narrow because the material is inadequate from the larger institutions and all but a few of the smaller colleges. The students have not tried to analyze the manifold purposes of a large university; in the colleges there is more likelihood of common goals and common means. Even here, however, the material available is formless and confusing in many ways, and the conclusions presented can only be the interpretation of the writer. He has supplemented reading in college newspapers, magazines, and committee reports with discussions with many students from varying institutions, and attendance at student-controlled intercollege conferences.

An accurate report of what the average student is thinking and dreaming and saying about the ideal liberal arts college (if the average student can possibly be imagined at such an

[1] Joel 2:28.

[2] Samuel E. Morison, *The Founding of Harvard College* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1935), p. 28, footnote 5.

occupation), would need both an observer in every fraternity house and dormitory and an interpreter of what the statements mean in the light of the local situation. Probably the conversation in the dining room or the lounge would be about details rather than ends or means, for by and large the American undergraduate has had a feeling that "education and its problems existed only outside the pale of undergraduate speculation."[3] The American instinct to call on an expert, combined with the feeling that a smoothly running machine, filling every day with some sort of activity, ought not to be interfered with, has played a part in the students' tendency to take on faith what their elders have decided is good for them. In truth, they have had little time in the last twenty years to bother their heads about educational methods; the ideal of a social unit, with all the planning and work it requires, has been uppermost in their minds. This distinctively American contribution to higher education has naturally been more attractive to the average eighteen- or nineteen-year-old undergraduate.

In recent years, however, this average student has been taking less for granted. Probably the depression has made him wonder how efficient the machine really is. He may have attended a progressive school and been shocked by the backwardness of his college in capitalizing on new theories of learning. He may have had a brother at Chicago, St. John's, or Antioch, or a sister at Bennington or Scripps. He may even have read Dr. Hutchins in the *Saturday Evening Post*. But probably social conditions and the problems they pose have made him question the value of his four cloistered years. The result has been a tremendous upsurge of interest in the curricular offerings in the social sciences, and considerable activity in extracurricular work. There is far more evidence available, for example, about the impact of the depression on the thinking of college students about society. One of the

[3] Editorial, Kenyon College *Collegian*, Nov. 13, 1939.

corollaries of this movement has been a doubting-Thomas attitude towards the ideals of the liberal arts college.

The elected student governments still concern themselves largely with extracurricular matters, with particular emphasis on the building of social units. Women's colleges are ahead of the men's in giving weight to undergraduate opinion on the curriculum, apparently with good results. There are active student curriculum committees at Mount Holyoke, Smith, and Vassar. Perhaps the most experienced men's student government in this field to join their sisters (and what a joy this must be to Yale!) is at Harvard. For more than twenty years a stream of reports have been issued, evaluating, criticizing, and suggesting methods to the administration. But these are exceptions, and few in number.

So many factors enter into the average editorial or article that the interpreter should hesitate to make any comments without knowing the writer's school preparation, his exact academic standing, his father's profession, and his relations with his freshman counselor. But even lacking these, certain generalizations can be made: The average writer is in the senior year, probably in the top half of the class, and more likely to be working in the arts and social sciences than in the pure sciences. Probably a campus leader, he is well qualified to express the views of a sizeable group of contemporaries. The chances of any reading in history of education or educational philosophy are very small, although a course in psychology may have aroused interest in mental processes. Invariably the writers are not content with discussing ends alone; some kind of action is wanted—at once.

II

Underlying much of what is written and said is a sense of inadequacy. By the senior year the students look back and discover in dismay that much has been overlooked and much more misunderstood or forgotten. Having entered with buoyant hopes and large visions, they are appalled the fourth year by the amount that they must do to be "educated," and

angry that so little has been done. Often this results in criticism of a ridiculous system which keeps them tied down to uninteresting requirements when they could have learned the lesson of their ignorance sooner by immediate specialization. On the other hand, at Harvard a recent report pointed out to the administration that in the existing method of concentration in one subject and free electives outside that subject:

> by a curious confusion—the student who expects to develop ability to make unprejudiced choices must make from the start such choices; but owing to a lack of training they cannot help but be prejudiced.[4]

This sense of inadequacy often takes the form of the criticism that the curricular offerings are not correlated together, are not placed in proper relationship with the social life of the college, and do not train for daily living after graduation. The average college student apparently expects a great deal more from his four years in the liberal arts training than his brother and sister in pre-war Europe. A French girl at Mount Holyoke has written:

> In France university years never reach such a momentum in the mind of those who have been through them; they remain in the background and whatever highlights they have, belong simply to events of youth, and not to a definite college pattern.[5]

Unless this "college pattern" is remembered, undergraduate comment on higher education cannot be understood. Borrowed from England, it has grown into an integral part of the vision of our youth, and indeed, until recently, almost all the extra energies of our students have been turned into the social, athletic, and community aspects of their life. The average American presumably wants to belong to a group just as much as the German, and anyone attending an intercollegiate football or basketball game can see the almost pathetic

---

[4] Harvard Student Council, *Report of the Student Council Committee on Education,* June 12, 1939, p. 3. Copies of this and other Harvard Student Council Reports may be obtained by writing the Council at Phillips Brooks House, Cambridge, Mass.

[5] Francoise Aron, *Mount Holyoke Alumnae Quarterly,* February 1940, p. 166.

desire to be a part of a unit. At the near-adolescent period immediate social problems are likely to be more demanding than immediate intellectual uncertainties. Certainly when the student feels reasonably satisfied with his surroundings, he is more likely to turn his energies to criticizing the educational methods of his institution, than if he senses an uncompleted task in moral and social training.

For example, in April 1926, a Harvard Student Council report set forth the principle:

> Of equal importance with the formal training afforded by the academic system is the informal training which comes through the social life of the college and the daily contacts of students one with another outside of the classroom. The committee feels very strongly that one of the major defects of Harvard education is the failure of a very large and apparently increasing number of undergraduates to reap the benefits of that larger life of the college which promotes culture as distinct from mere knowledge.[6]

The committee went on to propose a plan, never before committed to paper, which a few years later bore fruit in the Harvard House system. In the same report, there is a reference to a Dartmouth committee report of the previous year, setting up a new curriculum:

> At Dartmouth it was thought a new system was needed. . . . At Harvard the purpose of the committee was quite different. Since Harvard already has an excellent system, and one in which faculty and students place great confidence, it is obvious that there is no need for a new one.[7]

This was written in the honeymoon days as the tutorial plan was growing. Yet five years later with the House Plan under way, a report on the Tutorial Plan threw a few doubts into the happy atmosphere, and by 1939 the honeymoon was over. Beware the administrator who feels that he has hit upon a

---

[6] Report of Harvard Student Council Committee on Education, reprinted in a Supplement to the *Harvard Alumni Bulletin*, XXVIII (April 15, 1926), 2.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 1.

plan which will keep the students' enthusiasm beyond the common creative stage!

A student at Antioch has expressed a conception similar to that of the Harvard Committee, though phrased in different terms:

> . . . the cooperative plan, the required courses, and the character building devices such as standards and community government. Any one of these three elements taken alone would not, and does not, where practiced in other schools, constitute any particularly startling educational contribution. Taken together they should produce an educated person who, unlike the products of a vocational college, is able to grasp some part of all the areas of his environment, and unlike the products of the scholastic education, is equipped to meet the pressing personal problems of life. . . . Antioch is following this way [out] and it is the validity of our goals that makes attendance here so worth while.[8]

This was written in one of the papers required of seniors at Antioch, in which a definite attempt is made by the students to correlate their four years of experience. Some of his classmates were distressed about the individualistic students in a program which emphasizes community spirit; a troubled spirit noted: "Antioch lays too much emphasis on introspective thinking. I feel each individual becomes so aware of himself and his mental processes that he is apt to become perplexed and uncertain."[9] The majority, however, have shared the ideals of the first writer, and have made suggestions to improve community government and other aspects of Antioch life. At Mount Holyoke student government is supplemented by a large number of campus clubs, representing curricular and extracurricular interests, apparently far more used by the freshmen and sophomores than juniors and seniors who feel the pressures of academic work, and probably no longer need the satisfaction of "belonging."[10]

---

[8] Bert Bech, *The Antiochan,* IV, No. 8 (June 1940), 4.

[9] Jean Lederle, *The Antiochan,* II, No. 16 (June 3, 1938), p. 10.

[10] "What We Like about Campus Clubs," reprinted from the *Mount Holyoke Alumnae Quarterly,* May 1940, p. 16. Available at Dean's Office, Mount Holyoke College.

Such plans for undergraduate life are often dignified by the title "Training for Democracy." Elections for student positions take on the trappings of a national election. Syracuse University set up a student government plan not unlike the national government. While there is no evidence that such programs attract much serious attention from the students, it is undoubtedly true that they contribute in some way to student spirit, and help to adjust the average undergraduate to his ideal of a college as a self-sufficient unit, giving a preview of later life.

Educators sometimes forget, in their complaints at the excesses of the fraternity and athletic systems, that this ideal is at the core of American students' conception of a liberal arts college. It cannot be legislated out of existence. The occasional rebels in every undergraduate community, who object to social pressures, are often those who demand community life when it is lacking. Anyone who has attended intercollegiate meetings of student governments, though he may have been distressed at the inarticulateness of the delegates, can feel beneath their plans for "getting out the vote" and rearranging the rushing season, an attempt to build up a satisfactory community life. Doubtless guidance is needed, but the vision is worth while.

III

Granted that the pressing social problem is somewhat solved, the student may feel free to turn his attention to the way he is taught. Unfortunately it is still necessary to write "is taught" rather than "learns." Though many pay lip-service to the idea that all should drink at the fountain of knowledge, all too often the arguments and plans suggest intravenous injection as a simpler method.[11] By the senior year a clearer conception of what they should have done has

[11] For an example of a report which recognizes this evil see Dartmouth College Senior Committee, *The Report on Undergraduate Education*, May 15, 1924, p. 21. Available at Dean's Office, Dartmouth College.

come to them, and they are anxious that their followers should not suffer as they. Only rarely does it occur to them, apparently, that the feeling of being lost, without destination or path, is part of their maturing process, and that any mechanical scheme, however closely adjusted to the individual, will not be able to correlate his knowledge with his hopes and his fears at every stage in his development.

Many educators have felt that student philosophy is too changeable, too much given to temporary enthusiasms, too likely to worship at false shrines, to be dependable or useful in making a long-range policy. A casual reading of the available material would seem to bear them out, for more than once an undergraduate has changed his mind about a hated requirement after a few years. He is likely to seize on a neighbor's program with delight, when well presented and nicely edged with wit, without realizing that his own college experimented with something of the sort five years before.

Beneath these constant changes, however, there is evidence of certain common assumptions, common ends, and a few common means. One of these has been mentioned; others are discussed below. No one can say where they come from, but it is likely that they are the result of intermittent discussions with family, faculty, and friends. Students as a breed are amazingly sensitive to climates of thought, and though often wrong in the details of any program, they are clear enough on its major premises and means. The result is a closer interdependence between colleges than a spectator at a football game or an amazed listener to holiday chitchat between students of different colleges would expect.

The admirable report of 1924 by a committee of Dartmouth students, appointed by President Hopkins to study a new curriculum, put their ideal in these words:

> It is the purpose of the college to provide a selected group of young men with a comprehensive background of information about the world and its problems, and to stimulate them to develop their capacity for rational thinking, philosophic understanding, creative imagination and aesthetic sensitiveness, and to inspire them to use these developed powers

in becoming leaders in service to society.[12] . . . Primarily the college must develop the intellectual faculties of men, and seek to lead them away from stereotyped, prejudiced, rationalized thinking.[13]

A Harvard report of 1939 states:

To free the college man from prejudice the liberal college gives him the opportunity to develop considered standards of value. To free him from ignorance, the liberal college gives him some idea of our common tradition of human experience and attempts to give him intellectual tools with which he can confront new problems successfully. The theory is first that making "free men" is something which is good in itself and needs no postgraduate justification. But it is also that liberally educated men in positions in leadership and in all walks of life will bring to the decisions which they will have to make more adequate standards of value, sharper intellectual analysis, and broader imagination than other men.[14]

A speaker at the Kenyon College commencement in 1939 proposed a scheme which he said might "[produce] a background for our specialization . . . a background for living and learning, by adopting a catholic and all embracing curriculum." [15]

These passages have been quoted at some risk, since educators have, of course, read hundreds of similar statements, and can probably turn them out in their sleep. Students, however, are not so adept, and with minds relatively uncluttered by educational jargon, try to say what they mean. The similarity in vocabulary of the Dartmouth and Harvard statements is striking, and though separated by over ten years, there is a similarity in the methods they propose to achieve their ends.[16]

---

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 13.

[14] Harvard Student Council, *Report of the Student Council Committee on Education*, June 12, 1939, p. 2.

[15] Eric A. Hawke, "Toward a Higher Education," delivered at the Kenyon College Commencement, June 1939. A copy is on file at the President's Office, Kenyon College.

[16] See also Eleanor Whitington, "A Senior Looks at the Two-Unit Plan," *Mount Holyoke Alumnae Quarterly*, reprinted from the February 1939 issue; and Bill Duffett, *The Antiochan*, IV, No. 8 (June 1940), 6-7.

Common ground has been reached also in the majority of student appraisals of the value of specialization at some point in the college course. Opinions differ as to the starting place, but with few exceptions they insist that they be given adequate opportunity to follow their own interests. This is true despite the inroads made by the recent publicity about the St. John's plan, which is apparently understood as giving no latitude whatever during the four years of training. The two-year Columbia course in Contemporary Civilization, followed in 1934 by a similarly designed course in science and in 1937 in the humanities is referred to, though not necessarily by name. The idea behind it seems to appeal to undergraduates, and a pamphlet describing the whole plan of the first two years was drawn on by the Harvard Committee of 1939 in its conclusion that Harvard should require five "area" background courses of the undergraduates. But the concentration on one chosen subject for some length of time seems to most of the writers of editorials or articles a necessary instrument in arousing intellectual interest. In the majority of reports by the Antioch students, for example, they seem to have reached their desire for correlation of their studies more through their major than their required courses.[17] A Mount Holyoke student enrolled in the two-unit plan has written:

> I believe that human life is so connected and of such an organic nature that, given time, a student intensely interested in one of its problems will find herself interested in others also. I believe that once that interest is aroused, an investigation of life *could* take place that would have more personal and critical value than any under an educational system which plans to lead the student from a general authoritarian knowledge of life into a specialized scrutiny of one aspect of it.[18]

The writer goes on to say that the ideal is only as practical

---

[17] This can only be an interpretation, since many of the students are not consciously answering this question. But see Paul Nosker and Mary Alice Sarvis, *The Antiochan*, I, No. 2 (Sept. 17, 1937), 4, 6.

[18] Eleanor Whitington, "A Senior Looks at the Two-Unit Plan," *Mount Holyoke Alumnae Quarterly*, February 1939.

as four years will allow, and grants that it is only for a certain type of student.

The same approach was used by a Kenyon senior who dared to leave out the "ifs," "buts," and "ands." He said that students found only occasional bits from the required courses which interested them, and these generally related to their major fields; the rest, he said, was superficial "and superficiality is not challenging." [19] He provoked several articles, one of which preferred a program cutting across several fields "which would correlate these relationships at the point of their occurrence in the course of study," [20] and another of which pointed out that practical considerations made such plans difficult and pointed to the efficiency of required courses in teaching the maximum elementary material in the shortest time. In general, each undergraduate who has turned his mind to steering a course between "the Scylla and Charybdis —(which) are anarchy or prescription" [21] has his own idea. They are as varied, probobly, as the curriculum of the institutions attended.

Another conclusion on which the majority of students have agreed, whenever they have tried to think through the problems faced by a college today, is that some limitation of enrollment must be enforced. For they soon discover that none of their programs will work if classes are held back by slow students, or uninterested but able students. The righteous indignation of a senior at a system which permits or unwittingly encourages a potentially good student to do as little as he can and still get by, is a sight to behold. Yet they feel helpless, as teachers have often felt, when they search for a way to aid him. As a refuge they turn to a combination plan [22] taking care of both types of students.

---

[19] R. D. McHeavy, *Hika,* Kenyon College, October 1939, p. 15.

[20] C. McKinley, Jr., *Hika,* Kenyon College, December 1939, p. 21.

[21] Robert Lowell, *Hika,* Kenyon College, November 1939, p. 16.

[22] See Harvard Student Council Report of June 12, 1939, and Dartmouth Senior Committee Report of May 15, 1924.

IV

Unquestionably student interest in educational methods is growing. Like it or not, the educators of the future may have to answer embarrassing questions; indeed it is rather surprising that undergraduates who can grow quite excited over economic and social problems have not yet inquired about the examination and grading systems which affect them so personally. Questions are now beginning to be heard on the relation of the college to the graduate schools—the same issue that has troubled educators if not students for so many years. That students interest themselves in such matters, rather than accept them on faith, seems a healthy sign. Perhaps the crisis now at hand will drive all other problems out of their heads. Let us hope not, for despite the trouble it will cause, the explanations, the calming of unruly spirits, it will bring about a closening of the relationship between master and pupil, which has been and will be the cornerstone of any college. Let them have their visions and dream their dreams; as one student put it, "It may even make us think!"

The Colleges in the Preparedness Program 1917-18 and 1940*

By ROWLAND HAYNES

IN THE January 1940 issue of THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD, Samuel P. Capen reviewed the effect of the World War of 1914-18 on American colleges and universities. The purpose of the article here presented is to compare the situation now with that in 1917-18 in American higher education, and to suggest the effect on education of differences and similarities noted in that comparison.

Chancellor Capen's main conclusion was that "the scientific and educational forces of the country should not again be caught unprepared and unorganized." Since his article appeared last January, a coordinating committee has been organized representing not only higher education, but also secondary and elementary schools. Now that we are getting organized, it is appropriate to ask for what we are to be prepared.

The contribution of the colleges and universities is of two kinds: (1) in research and (2) in training of students. Under research we include not only investigation but also applications of specialized research to scientific problems connected with war activities. Because the government's use of specialists on university faculties will probably be largely a matter of registration and individual assignment and because university research is likely to make relatively less of a contribution than in the last war on account of the greater proportional development of research in industrial laboratories in the last twenty-five years, this article confines itself to problems of training chiefly at the college level.

Since Parke R. Kolbe's book, *The Colleges in Wartime and After* (1919), gives an excellent summary of activities in

* EDITOR'S NOTE. President Haynes' article was received September 10. With his consent it has been amended to incorporate results of legislation and other governmental activities up to the time of going to press.

1917-18, we shall here content ourselves with a skeletonized description of policies and procedures which appeared during those years; and then, from this description, indicate likenesses and differences in the present situation, and the probable effect of those likenesses and differences on educational procedure in coming months.

Procedures and Policies in 1917-18

Among the procedures and policies followed in 1917-18 of interest to colleges, was the advice given students to stay in college until drafted. This advice came from four sources: on May 5, 1917, from representatives of colleges and universities assembled by the Council of National Defense; on July 3 and 4, 1917, from the Commission from Canadian universities; on July 20, 1917, from President Wilson; and on May 6, 1918, from Secretary of War Baker who, in announcing the plan for the Student Army Training Corps, endorsed the principle that students under draft age serve best by continuing their education.

The plan for the Student Army Training Corps—of great significance to educational institutions throughout the country —"in effect amounted to the government's taking over their (the colleges') entire plants as preliminary officers' training schools, to be carried on by the War Department in so far as everything except the administration of actual classroom instruction and housing and subsistence of soldiers was concerned." These last three items were also subsidized by the government. While the S.A.T.C. was a partial failure because the Armistice caused its discontinuance about two months after it was started, it should be remembered that the War Department's Committee on Education and Special Training stated on December 11, 1918, that "with the further development of the war under war conditions, this purpose of the S.A.T.C. (to increase the military power of the country as effectively and quickly as possible) was in a fair way to be achieved."

During the war the financial position of the colleges had be-

come precarious. By the summer of 1918, reduced enrollment, increased cost of supplies—especially coal—and call for increased faculty salaries to meet increased cost of living had brought many colleges to the point where it seemed likely they might be compelled to suspend for the duration of the war, or permanently discontinue. This was averted primarily because of the establishment of the S.A.T.C. under government subsidy. Other methods of meeting this critical situation were reduction in the number of faculty, which was made easier by the calling of many to war service (the reduction of individual salaries was nowhere reported); omission of unnecessary items such as college catalogues; and increase of tuition on an average of 20 per cent in one-third of the colleges reporting.

Leaves of absence for government service were granted to faculty members by most colleges during the war, often with provision for re-employment if the situation allowed. In a few institutions it was customary for instructors to resign. Salary practice in 221 institutions reporting was as follows: 85, or 38 per cent, definitely stopped salaries; 110, or 47 per cent, did not state, but apparently stopped salaries except in rare special cases; 21, or 9.5 per cent, made up the difference between government pay and former college salaries; and 11, or 5.5 per cent, continued college salaries during absence on war duty.

Though adoption by colleges of the quarterly system during the last war was recommended by representatives of colleges assembled in May 1917 by the Council of National Defense, this recommendation was not widely adopted until inauguration of the S.A.T.C. plan in September 1918.

Physical training and athletic programs in the colleges became of greater importance in 1917-18. Two tendencies were then discernible: (1) for military drill to replace formal physical training in gymnasium, and (2) for emphasis on athletics for all students. The National Collegiate Athletic Association on August 2, 1917, among other recommendations, suggested that athletic sports be continued with increased effort to develop athletics for all students rather than for a chosen few

(this followed a suggestion of the Secretary of War), and that professional coaching and expenses incident thereto be reduced to a minimum.

Several organizations for the use of the colleges developed during the last war, and served with varying degrees of effectiveness. Of the two most outstanding organizations, experience proved the form of organization of the War Department's Committee on Education and Special Training to be the more effective. This committee was small (there were three Army officers and an advisory board of six civilians), it had money and authority, and it was informed on the specific needs of the War Department. On the other hand, the committee of college presidents organized by the Council of National Defense was ineffective because it was too large, it had too many interests and scattered its energies, and it had no funds or authority.

As a part of the war activities initiated in 1917-18, a comprehensive study was made of the needs of every branch of the service for trained men. This study was prepared by the War Department's Committee on Classification of Personnel in the Army, and as a result an "Index of Occupations" was issued. Most of the trades, however, required no preliminary scientific training.

On May 1, 1918, the Council of National Defense issued a list of 55 war occupations open to women, over half of which required college training. Specially emphasized were nursing, dietetics, food conservation, and office work such as that of secretaries, accountants, and statisticians. College extension courses to aid the Red Cross, such as first aid, home nursing, civilian relief, and home service were designed especially for adult education for women.

Likenesses and Differences: 1917-18 and 1940

It is both interesting and pertinent to compare what is happening in 1940 with what happened in 1917-18, in order to obtain a picture of what future developments and needs may be. When the colleges opened in September 1917, war had been

declared six months before. More important still, in 1917 the United States had gone through two years of preparation of public opinion leading to the belief that eventually the United States would have to join in the European conflict. In September 1940, however, the United States had not declared war and had seriously considered its involvement in the European situation for only a few months.

On the other hand, in 1917 the plan of compulsory enlistment was not worked out for several weeks after the declaration of war. In 1940 this plan has been put into effect as a peacetime measure. After several months of discussion of some plan of compulsory military selection and training, on September 16, just preceding the opening of the colleges, the Burke-Wadsworth Bill providing for such selection and training was signed by President Roosevelt.

As a result of the passage of this measure, it is hardly probable that we shall have such widespread volunteering by college men as occurred in 1917. Educators have urged young people to stay in school, and on August 15, 1940, a presidential message advised young people "that it is their patriotic duty to continue the normal course of their education unless and until they are called so that they will be well prepared for greatest usefulness to their country."

In August 1918, the draft age was lowered to 18 years. In 1940, under present legislation, those from 18 to 21 will not be called. This means that the government will not at once take over the supervision of the training of those 18 to 21 as it did in the fall of 1918. Furthermore, the War Department will probably be so busy organizing the training of those between 21 and 36 during 1940, that it will not do much if anything about training those under 21.

In 1918 there was a Committee on Classification of Personnel in the Army, and an elaborate index of occupations in the Army was published. The Army now has a comprehensive and up-to-date survey of the number of men needed in various occupational fields for each arm and service of the military unit. An intelligence test has been devised through the Selec-

tive Service Committee which will be given to all men inducted into the service. A rather comprehensive series of trade and aptitude tests has also been devised. The Advisory Commission to the Council on National Defense is compiling data on the number of men needed for the many occupational fields involved in national defense; a national committee is developing an extensive catalogue of occupations, utilizing data of the United States Employment Service; and a national register of scientific and professional personnel is in process of preparation by the Civil Service Commission and the National Resources Planning Board. Thus the colleges may, therefore, expect some guidance as to how best to adjust their courses to be of the greatest use.

Early in the summer of 1940, 15 million dollars was appropriated by Congress to be spent through the Office of Education for courses to meet the need for training in the various trades and vocations. By August 15, some 80,000 men were enrolled in these courses. A proposed appropriation of $60,500,000 for similar purposes is included in the President's supplementary appropriation bill.

An increased demand was felt in 1917-18 for trained office workers in war industries and government offices. At that time also, there was a large demand for nurses, not only to take the place of nurses who were drawn into service with combat forces, but also for home nursing. This is not likely to be as large at the present time as in 1917-18, since the demand for staff camp hospitals is far less than for hospitals for an army at war. Hence some, but at present not extensive, development of courses for office workers, accountants, statisticians, and nurses may be valuable.

The most notable development in the methods of war since 1917 has been the development of air forces and of mechanized units in the Army. Germany spent six years in developing this side of her preparation. France was overcome partly because of the superior mechanical development of the German forces. The battle of England has so far been essentially one of airplanes. This side of warfare, comparatively unim-

portant in 1917-18, has now become of the greatest significance. A start at training college students along this line today has already been put into effect. Since 1938 the Civil Aeronautics Board has been conducting a training program for civilian pilots in selected universities and colleges. This has resulted, by September 1940, in the training of over 28,000 students and the participation of about 500 universities and colleges in the program. By July 1941, a total of some 73,000 students will have been trained, and some 700 colleges and universities will have cooperated in the work. This development may be still further expanded. Provision for preliminary courses in the operation and repair of gas engines and similar mechanical equipment are being met by the funds administered through the Office of Education.

In 1917-18 the United States did much to feed the Allies. In 1940 embargoes and the difficulties in shipping make it seem unlikely that the United States will furnish Europe with large amounts of food. We have a surplus, and food conservation measures used in 1917-18 are not in view. This means that students are not likely to be drawn off for agriculture as they were in 1917-18, nor will food conservation courses be in such demand.

Since the World War, organizations such as the WPA, the NYA, and the CCC have played an important role in the national life. At the time of this writing, it is estimated that there are four and a half million young people out of school looking for jobs, and that the CCC and NYA are reaching not over 700,000, or about one-sixth. If this number is doubled, we shall still have two-thirds of the total for whom no special training is being prepared through those two branches of federal government activities. The colleges may have a real problem, not only in cooperating with these two branches, but also in helping the two-thirds which will not, during the first year, be reached by these agencies.

During the last war thousands of men in uniform were sent to schools and colleges for short courses. This is not contemplated at the present time, except to a limited degree in highly

specialized fields. Three factors are militating against this development: (1) the various arms and services have developed training institutions within the Army and Navy; (2) many of the 120,000 reserve officers will already have had the necessary training; and (3) the Selective Service Act will bring in many enlisted men who have already received this training.

In conclusion, may I express the hope that these comparisons and contrasts will help those responsible for policies and procedures in higher education to avoid some of the mistakes that were made twenty-two years ago. It is my belief that because of the effects of the depression on the income of colleges and the effect of the necessarily large appropriations for military preparedness, public education in this country faces more drastic changes in the next decade than in any other period in its history. This calls not for useless complaint, but for a common-sense analysis of the present situation in order to adjust the educational activities to national needs and financial resources.

A Decade of Progress in Accounting and Financial Reporting for Colleges and Universities

By J. HARVEY CAIN

LESS than two decades ago, financial reports were published by only a few colleges and universities. Comparable financial statistics had no genuine meaning. Hundreds of accounting systems were being kept by a single-entry system of bookkeeping. The college business officer's position and his place in the academic development had not been fairly established.

In 1911 and again in 1921, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching took cognizance of this situation by publishing important bulletins dealing with the forms of reports for such institutions. Committees of the central Association of Business Officers likewise made studies of the subject and brought about considerable progress. Movements were also started by the Association of American Colleges and other educational organizations for the improvement of financial statistics.

In 1922 Trevor Arnett's epic of business management, *College and University Finance,* was published and distributed by the General Education Board. This volume was to have far reaching influence. Dr. Arnett's definition of endowment and his emphasis on separation of the college balance sheet into balanced sections for current, plant, and endowment funds were among his significant contributions to the development of sound practices.

Nevertheless, in 1929, Arthur J. Klein, then chief of higher education in the United States Office of Education, found that it was impossible to secure meaningful financial data from the various institutions in the country. He appealed to the associations of business officers to assist him in improving this condition. They responded by the appointment of committees.

National Committee on Standard Reports

In 1930 the National Committee on Standard Reports for Institutions of Higher Education was organized. It consisted of representatives from the various associations of business officers and of other educational organizations. Membership included college presidents, college business officers, and representatives of educational bodies. It undertook to formulate principles to be followed in keeping accounts and preparing reports for such institutions. This work was accomplished through a careful analysis of existing methods in institutional accounting and reporting, and by enlisting the cooperation and aid of institutional officers, public accountants, and other interested persons. The officers of the committee were: Lloyd Morey, chairman; F. L. Jackson, vice chairman; G. H. Mew, secretary; G. C. Wintringer, treasurer. Other members included Trevor Arnett, John C. Christensen, D. J. Cowling, Andrew Comrie, H. C. Edgerton, E. S. Erwin, H. C. Gregg, T. L. Hungate, Arthur J. Klein, Gail A. Mills, E. E. Rall, Floyd W. Reeves, G. Stanley Rupp, Carl E. Steeb, Ralph J. Watts, R. M. West, and George F. Zook. George E. Van Dyke served as its technical secretary in the preparation of its final report. Its entire program was generously financed by the General Education Board.

In 1935 it published its final report, a 285-page book entitled *Financial Reports for Colleges and Universities* (University of Chicago Press), which it distributed widely. The committee then went out of existence.

The work of the National Committee is looked upon as constituting an authoritative standard of college and university accounting and reporting. Its recommendations have been widely adopted and applied by individual institutions, educational agencies, and public accountants.

Financial Advisory Service

When the work of the National Committee was completed it was felt by many persons that other means should be pro-

vided for securing the acceptance and adoption of its program, and for answering numerous inquiries growing out of the work of the committee. They realized that the publication and distribution of the report alone would not insure improvement in accounting and reporting, and that many excellent surveys had been completed only to find repose on book shelves.

The American Council on Education undertook to fill this need by the establishment of a Financial Advisory Service. Again the General Education Board supplied the resources by which this service could be carried on.

The Financial Advisory Service is under the general direction of an Advisory Committee of nine members. These persons, while individually chosen, represent as far as possible different sections of the country and different types of institutions and interests. The members of the committee are: Lloyd Morey, comptroller of the University of Illinois, chairman; John C. Christensen, controller of the University of Michigan; E. S. Erwin, assistant comptroller of Stanford University; H. S. Ford, treasurer of Massachusetts Institute of Technology; F. L. Jackson, treasurer of Davidson College; George F. Rogalsky, treasurer of Cornell University; John Dale Russell, associate dean, Division of the Social Sciences of the University of Chicago; John L. Seaton, president of Albion College; and W. E. Wagoner, controller of Ball State Teachers College.

The Advisory Committee meets twice annually, usually once in Chicago and once in Washington, where it takes part in the general meeting of the American Council on Education. During intervening times it functions by correspondence. As part of its work, the committee makes decisions regarding principles of university management, outlines publications, and also plans work for its permanent staff, which has headquarters with the American Council on Education at 744 Jackson Place, Washington. By this close supervisory cooperation between committee and staff, the Financial Advisory Service, in all but the least important matters, gives to American education the benefit of nine men's studied opinions on financial problems.

The Service was established in 1936. George E. Van Dyke, now treasurer of Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland, served as its first technical associate, followed by John B. Goodwin, now finance officer, New York City Board of Higher Education. Since 1937, J. Harvey Cain, formerly a member of the Advisory Committee, has served as director. During a part of this period, A. Robert Seass served as research assistant.

Program of the Service

The improvement of accounting and financial reporting in colleges and universities along the lines recommended by the National Committee was and still is a major purpose of the Service. That is not by any means its only function. As it has progressed, its program has come to include almost every phase of the financial management of higher education. Its activities have brought it into contact with a large proportion of collegiate institutions of the country and with all associations of college business officers and many other educational associations. These contacts and services are carried out through the following means:

1. Office conferences and correspondence. Such service involves a wide variety and scope ranging from inquiries concerning specific problems to complete analyses of institutional financial reports. The office has come to be looked upon as a sort of national headquarters where business officers may turn for information on any kind of business problem with which they may be faced.

2. Personal visits. A large number of institutions have asked for personal visits by representatives of the Service and in practically every case important help has been rendered. In some cases surveys of major scope have been carried out, and on these occasions fees have been collected. In every case possible the institution bears the travel expenses plus a daily fee. Approximately 130 institutions have been visited by members of the staff.

3. Conferences and conventions. The Financial Advisory

Service has held fifteen conferences on accounting and financial reporting in various sections of the country, attended by more than 500 persons. Representatives of the Service have spoken at meetings of the major associations of business officers (Eastern, Southern, Western, and Central, the Educational Buyers' Association, the Association of Superintendents of Buildings and Grounds, and the Negro Association), and have attended all annual meetings of these associations. Likewise they have spoken before many state associations, and have appeared on the programs of a number of national educational associations. Important conferences have been held with representatives of the United States Office of Education concerning financial statistics, and with a number of state departments. The Service has attended many special conferences held under other auspices, such as church-related and Negro groups.

4. Publications. The major part and perhaps the most constructive work of the Service has been accomplished through its publications. The Service has been responsible for the preparation and distribution of two additional books supplementing the National Committee report: *Accounting Manual for Colleges* (Gail A. Mills) which sets forth a complete accounting system designed primarily for the liberal arts college or a larger institution; *Manual of Teachers College Accounting* (Edward V. Miles, Jr.) designed especially for institutions of this type but also adaptable to the small college. This volume contains a complete accounting system based on the recommendations of the National Committee. Eighteen bulletins on financial and business management have been published. In order to carry out the main purpose of the Service to improve accounting and reporting, the initial distribution of these bulletins was made without charge in order to reach all types and classes of institutions. A charge is made for additional purchases and income from this source is showing a steady increase. Recent bulletins cover subjects in a more detailed and extensive way than earlier bulletins. As the bulletins become better known, their sales are increasing.

A number of articles have been prepared by members of the

staff and published in educational journals. Reprints of these articles have been distributed, as well as of other outstanding articles by persons outside the Service.

5. Cooperation with other organizations. The work of the Financial Advisory Service has been in every sense cooperative. It has worked with other organizations in dealing with problems peculiar to them. For example, the volume on teachers college accounting was prepared in cooperation with the American Association of Teachers Colleges. A similar project is now under way with the American Association of Junior Colleges. The Service has cooperated with the National Catholic Educational Association in problems of accounting and reporting in those institutions. Much aid has been given to the various associations of business officers, and a high point of interest and appreciation of the Service has been developed among them all. The Service aided in the organization of the Western and Negro associations, and has been responsible for the organization of associations in several states where none existed before. The Service was influential in bringing about a standardization of names of the associations, and has aided in joint meetings of their executive committees to provide closer cooperation. Conferences were held with the editorial staff of *American Universities and Colleges* (1940 edition) and *American Junior Colleges,* recently published by the American Council on Education, on the nature and arrangement of financial data concerning institutions which should be presented in these two handbooks.

Another project has been the indexing of the proceedings of the Central Business Officers Association and the preparation of a bibliography of this material. The Service has also completed the incorporation of the proceedings of other associations into this bibliography and has in mind the publication of this material so that it may be available to all members.

Another important project is that of cooperation with the United States Office of Education in the development of suitable forms for the financial reports called for by that office. Much progress has been made in the past few years in im-

provement of these reports and the statistics based upon them. Forms for the current year represent further progress, due considerably to discussions between the Service and the U. S. Office. For those institutions which follow in general the National Committee classifications the preparation of these reports becomes easier year by year. Furthermore, the accuracy of national statistics of higher education steadily improves. The Service is doing everything possible to advance such improvement, and also to prevent the use of erroneous statistical methods, such as, for example, the computation of cost per student by dividing total enrollment into total expenditure.

Among other agencies with which contacts are maintained with a view to keeping them informed as to the peculiar requirements of college accounting and reporting are the regional accrediting associations and the associations of public accountants, as well as individual accountants who do institutional audits. The bookkeeping machine and business system manufacturers have placed experts at the disposal of the Service. All of these groups have been cooperative and responsive.

Work Yet To Be Done

The program of the Financial Advisory Service has been endorsed and commended in resolutions by all the regional associations of college and university business officers. That it is held in high regard by them is indicated by letters addressed to the President of the Council, not only by the associations, but by scores of individual officials who have taken occasion to express approval of the work and their gratitude to the General Education Board for making it possible.

That the work of the Service cannot be considered to be finished is indicated by the expressions of desire from numerous quarters that it continue in a permanent manner and by the fact that much of its work is still not complete. While authoritative standards of accounting and reporting have been established and generally accepted, the task of bringing order and adequacy into the accounts and financial reports of colleges, though showing signs of progress, is not finished.

Numerous institutions still lack records and procedures needed for good management and for worthwhile statistical information. Personal and group conferences offer almost the only medium through which these results can be fully achieved.

There are still hundreds of institutions which need advice and guidance such as the Financial Advisory Service is now supplying and most of these institutions cannot afford to pay for the service. In other words, the need is apt to be in inverse ratio to the ability to pay for the same. What is now also much needed is *guidance in management* in addition to *guidance in procedure.* There is no other organization, governmental or private, to which a college or university business officer may turn for this most important and necessary help.

Appropriations made by the General Education Board for the National Committee and the Financial Advisory Service for the ten-year period ending August 31, 1940, have amounted to $103,729. This seems a very modest sum when the accomplishments are taken into consideration. The members of these two committees have served during this decade without compensation. Funds have been spent for staff and clerical assistance, printing and distribution of publications, travel, and office expense.

President Zook of the American Council in his report for 1939 commented as follows on the work of the Financial Advisory Service:

> The point of view of the Service has been commendable from the beginning. Accounting and reporting in an educational institution are not ends in themselves. The ends are teaching and research. The Service has said this again and again in publications, letters, and speeches. In a recent informal report to me, the Advisory Committee has phrased it thus—
>
> ". . . The business service of an educational institution exists for the purpose of aiding the instructional and scientific divisions of the institution. The functions of these services are not to direct, regulate, or dictate the educational program, but rather to assist in planning this program and in carrying it out. Higher education is a great business enterprise. No unit of that enterprise, however small, is without its

business problems. The better the business methods of such an enterprise the better will be the results it achieves for itself and the impression it makes upon those whose support is necessary. The aim of the Financial Advisory Service is that business management in colleges and universities may be brought to a uniformly high plane of conduct and achievement. Thereby instruction and research will be the beneficiaries."

In his annual report for 1940, Dr. Zook made the following statement:

The Council and American higher education need the Financial Advisory Service. We are all indebted to Mr. Morey, Mr. Cain and his predecessors, and the Advisory Committee for the contributions which they have already made. It has come to fill a significant place in the field of college and university financial management and in just a few years has created a tremendous amount of interest in these problems and focused attention on the necessity for establishing competence and confidence in the business leadership of colleges.

In an announcement sent out to the members of the Council on August 1, 1940, Dr. Zook stated:

The present foundation subvention for the support of the Financial Advisory Service of the American Council on Education, which expires this summer, will not be renewed. It has not been possible to secure the much needed additional funds, either from the foundation which has generously supported the work thus far, or from other sources. The Council regrets exceedingly that it is necessary to reduce the program of this important work. We continue to hope that ways may be found in the not far distant future to restore the Financial Advisory Service to its former level of effective contribution to education.

Comprehensive Qualitative Accrediting

By ERNEST V. HOLLIS

THE scholastic world gives evidence of being on the verge of putting into practice a new conception of accreditation. Membership and accrediting requirements adopted during the last five or six years show a transition from quantitative standards to the use of qualitative criteria and evaluation procedures which rate the institution in terms of its own statement of philosophy and objectives.

Just what is the nature of this new leaven for improving the quality of education? Is it really new, or merely a new device calculated to improve orthodox accreditation? Does it intend to unshackle an institution from lockstep conformity and stimulate it to achieve a high quality of work in patterns acceptable to its own constituency and governing authority? Does the effective use of qualitative criteria depend on administration by voluntary accrediting and membership associations, or could similar results be expected from evaluation by governmental accrediting agencies, such as the New York State Education Department?

This paper intends to explore briefly some of the implications of the questions raised, and to survey more extensively the inclusion of qualitative criteria and evaluation procedures in the currently used plans for accrediting (1) secondary schools, (2) colleges and universities, and (3) professional and technical schools. Obviously, a report so close to the growing edge of a new movement will be both tenuous and tentative. It cannot be a survey of experience in applying the new accreditation instruments. It will suggest some means for securing coordination to lessen the burden on colleges

caused by the increase in amount and scope of information required in comprehensive qualitative accrediting.

Orientation

All who have had experience with accrediting organizations know the lamentable weaknesses of quantitative standards. They tend to be mechanical, rigid, deadening, traditional, academic, and subjective. It should be recognized that the weaknesses we deplore in quantitative standards were increased by the procrustean necessity for rating devices without the loopholes of "equivalent" and "adequate"—"wonder-working words," Henry S. Pritchett once called them, "with the help of which a coach and four can be driven through any set of accrediting standards." The regrettable trend was accelerated by the research penchant for objectivity and its blind following of the dictum that "whatever exists, exists in some quantity and can be measured." Accrediting bodies, like school supervisors of the same period, were policemen and taskmasters to bring recalcitrants to an observance of at least the letter of these quantitative measures.

Education has moved to a higher level of operation. It no longer needs school or accrediting officials whose ideals and procedures are those of the army drillmaster and the factory foreman. At last we are coming to recognize that force is as ineffective when used on educational institutions as when used on individual teachers and children. Force produces surface conformity to an external pattern at the expense of individuality and other characteristics that enable an institution to serve better its constituency.

But in accreditation as elsewhere in education, the conservative feels a sense of lurking danger in any "meddling" with standards beyond mere patching amendments to the existing pattern. They fear that a transition from rigid standards to qualitative criteria means not removing accrediting shackles and breaking institutional lockstep, but returning to the evasion and subjectivity of early quantitative standards. The

conservative is skeptical of a plan that relinquishes quantitative standards for a judgment that may contain as much of bias and predilection as of understanding and wisdom. From this frame of reference it is rather difficult to understand that the newer form of accreditation is just an intelligent attempt to aid an institution in doing better the things it is going to do anyway.

Long before the protests[1] of the National Association of State Universities and of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, the more alert and discerning educators saw the necessity for supplementing quantitative accreditation. This came largely from their experiences with the rigid membership standards of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching which, from its organization in 1905 to the World War, had effectively stimulated colleges to an improved quality of work through giving pensions to professors whose institutions met its quantitative and otherwise explicit standards. Fortunately, the currently active accrediting agencies are mutual concerns which, if they have the foresight to do so, can bring their standards abreast of the times and remain as salutary influences in the further development of education. Most of them are grasping opportunity by the forelock.

In 1929 the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools pioneered by critically studying its own standards for accrediting colleges. Since 1934 college accrediting in the North Central Association has been revolutionized by the application of qualitative criteria devised by the study. The findings have profoundly influenced the plans of other agencies engaged in accrediting colleges and professional schools. Several associations of professional schools have sought independently to increase the amount of qualitative evaluation in their standards. An epoch-making study recommending qualitative accrediting at the secondary school level

[1] *Proceedings,* National Association of State Universities, Vol. 24, Part 2, 1926; and the *Proceedings,* Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, November 1938.

has just been completed through the cooperative effort of the six regional accrediting associations.

Nature and Procedures of Qualitative Accreditment

The leaven in all of the newer accrediting plans is a qualitative evaluation of an institution's total pattern of achievement, from the frame of reference of its avowed philosophy and objectives. The judgment is rendered by educators experienced in the field, men who mature their recommendations from more factual data than was commonly considered in quantitative accreditment. Two frontier thinkers state the declaration of independence for accreditation in the following words:

> An institution will be judged for accreditment upon the basis of the total pattern it presents as an institution of higher education. While the institution will be judged in terms of each of the characteristics noted in this statement of policy, it is recognized that wide variations will appear in the degree of excellence attained. It is accepted as a principle of procedure that superiority in some characteristics may be regarded as compensating, to some extent, for deficiencies in other respects. The facilities and activities of an institution will be judged in terms of the purposes it seeks to serve.[2]

This conception of accrediting differs radically from that which has prevailed since the early 1900's. It is small wonder that those fearful of change have difficulty in subscribing to the new philosophy, and greater misgivings as to the feasibility of its application.

As adapted and generalized from the Cooperative Study,[3] the guiding concepts of the newer accreditation may be summarized as follows:

1. The underlying purposes and organization of the institutions at any level of American education have enough broad similarities to make

---

[2] George F. Zook and Melvin E. Haggerty, *Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, Vol. I: Principles of Accrediting Higher Institutions (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936), p. 149.

[3] Walter C. Eells, *Evaluation of Secondary Schools: General Report*, pp. 57-61. The Cooperative Study, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

feasible a common method of evaluation and accreditation. They all serve American democratic ideals. (Complementary to No. 3.)

2. The doctrine of individual differences is as valid for institutions as for individuals. There should be no insistence upon rigid uniformity for any level of institutions of a state, region, or nation.

3. An institution can be judged fairly only in terms of its own philosophy, its expressed purposes and objectives, the nature of the pupils with whom it works, and the needs of the community which it serves.

4. An institution should be judged in terms of the extent to which it meets satisfactorily the needs of all persons enrolled.

5. It is more significant to measure what the institution does than what it has. The educational process and product are more important to evaluate than the mere presence of equipment and other facilities.

6. An institution should be judged as a whole, not merely as the sum of its parts. Deficiency in one facility or activity may be justifiable and may be compensated for in other respects.

7. Accrediting criteria and procedures should adequately sample the significant factors that characterize an institution and that discriminate between them in quality of work.

8. Evaluation by the considered judgment of competent educators, as far as possible, should be based upon scientific studies and objective evidence. The essential of the process of evaluation is passing judgment on evidence, not a recording of intuition, predilection, and unsupported opinion.

9. It is recognized that after evaluation has been made of the best available measurements of important aspects of an institution (e.g. library), that the adequacy of the institution in this area must still be judged by normative comparison with other schools measured by the same methods.

10. A good institution is a growing one. It should be judged by its progress between two ratings periods one to three years separated.

11. With extensive, flexible, and thorough criteria annual evaluation is not necessary.

12. Evaluation should be such as to require active participation in the process on the part of the entire staff of the institution. It should leave an attitude favorable to continuous self-surveying as a means of promoting growth and improvement.

It is believed that these statements present the fundamental theses and bedrock principles of qualitative evaluation, both

as to nature and procedure. Some interpretation and application of these concepts will be attempted in a later section of this paper.

Who Shall Do the Evaluating?

Qualitative criteria have been developed by democratically organized voluntary associations of institutions. There is implicit in such a formulation the idea that the evaluating is to be done by one's professional peers. But there is a pronounced tendency for the state to assert its legal prerogative and responsibility in determining the quality of education to be offered within its borders. In New York state, which is an excellent example of this trend, effective accreditment for every type of institution is done by a division of the state education department. Through its control of licensure and certification this department actually determines to a marked degree the entrance and graduation requirements of schools in other states whose graduates expect to work in New York. The right of the state to determine its own accreditation policies has been asserted with increasing vigor during the last decade by the National Association of State Universities and the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. In a forthcoming bulletin of the United States Office of Education, Fred J. Kelly formulates this philosophy and documents the transition toward state control of accreditation in higher education. Dean Alphonse M. Schwitalla of St. Louis University has effectively stated the forebodings of the private and church-controlled institutions at this trend.[4]

What will be the probable effect on qualitative accreditation of the conflict between the vested interests of the state and of the mutual associations for accreditation? Who shall control and give social direction to the educational institutions

[4] Alphonse M. Schwitalla, "The Future of the Accrediting Movement," in John D. Russell (editor), *The Outlook for Higher Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939), pp. 191-216. On pages 169-190, Dr. Kelly summarizes the philosophy elaborated in the forthcoming U. S. Office of Education bulletin.

of a state? After three decades of self-government in accreditation, especially among the colleges and professional schools, these institutions will resist the surrender of their prerogatives to the state. Voluntary accrediting groups are sure they will protect the individuality and right of self-determination of institutions, but they would be opposed to the same evaluation by a state agency because its judgment is not immediately amenable to the will of the governed.

But whether we like it or not, there is evidence to indicate that the states are on the verge of assuming more responsibility for the quality of higher education within their borders. They are giving more attention to the chartering of institutions, and to the licensure of teachers and other practitioners of the professional and technical schools. In thus trying to protect the education and health of its citizens a state must inevitably accredit or otherwise regulate the number and quality of its institutions. Voluntary associations of institutions probably can most effectively influence this trend by maintaining criteria for affiliation that state agencies will use in their accreditation. If these agencies have the guidance of an advisory council composed of representatives of voluntary accrediting bodies operating in the state there seems little reason to fear their application of qualitative criteria. Whoever may do the accrediting, it is believed that the increasing use of qualitative criteria is an institution's best means for preserving its essential integrity.

Qualitative Criteria in the Procedures for Evaluating Secondary Schools

So many excellent ideas for improving the quality of American education lie buried in research monographs that one is led to inquire: Is qualitative evaluation just the latest fad of the theorists, born out of time and probably destined to gather dust on library shelves along with other good ideas that practicing schoolmen have failed to use? If not, how extensive is the inclusion of qualitative criteria in the stimulative and accreditation procedures of the several agencies seeking to im-

prove the quality of our high schools, colleges, universities, and professional and technical schools? The remainder of this paper will be devoted to a brief survey of the extent and uses of qualitative criteria in accrediting procedures.

In August 1933, the six regional associations (two do not accredit schools) launched the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, taking as many cues as possible from the North Central Association's earlier study of qualitative accrediting criteria for institutions of higher education. After six years of research and experiment, the Cooperative Study produced in ten booklets 175 pages of *Evaluative Criteria.* It believes these to be more comprehensive, flexible, adaptable to scientific administration, and in other ways more valid for the continuous improvement of schools than the largely quantitative procedures commonly used in secondary school accrediting.

In brief, the new procedures call for an evaluation, guided by the basic concepts recited earlier in this paper, of all the applicable information on 110 items, irregularly allotted to nine major areas of the school program: curriculum, pupil activity program, library service, guidance service, instruction, outcomes, staff, plant, and administration. To be more specific, "Guidance Service" is allotted seven of the 110 items (called thermometers). The areas explored by these seven thermometers are nature and organization, guidance staff, information about pupils, guidance procedures, phases of guidance, results, and a general evaluation. The procedures of evaluation are more concretely illustrated by a close-up view of a single thermometer, for example, "Information about Pupils." Sixty-four items of information (with blanks to supply additions) are checked and ten evaluations made to reveal the adequacy of the permanent cumulative record for revealing (*a*) home and family background, (*b*) physical and medical status, (*c*) personal and social development, (*d*) scholastic progress, and (*e*) information from standardized and semistandardized tests. After checking the available information on each item, judgments or evaluations of adequacy

are given in terms of a five-point scale which by table is converted into a percentile score and recorded on a scale or thermometer. For comparative purposes, each thermometer shows norms for private and public schools, for accredited and unaccredited schools, and for the schools of each of the six regional associations.

While it is much too early to know the use the regional and state associations will ultimately make of these qualitative criteria, it is significant that within the year the study was completed each of the regional associations took some steps towards their use.

The 1940 standards for accreditation of high schools in the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, while still relying on its nine quantitative standards, carries the following statement concerning the introduction of the new plan:

> In 1938, the commission recommended and the association approved the gradual introduction of procedures recommended by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, for the evaluation of secondary schools. During the period of transition, the standards described above shall remain in effect.

In introducing the full use of *Evaluative Criteria,* it was specified that during 1939 not more than forty accredited schools and ten new schools were to be evaluated, but it was expected that "all schools now on the list should be evaluated before January 1, 1945" and that re-evaluation shall be not more frequent than at five-year intervals. The regulations provide:

> All new schools applying for membership shall be required to carry through the procedures of self-checking and self-evaluation and deposit the report with the Commission on Secondary Schools. After detailed analysis of these reports, the commission will choose schools for official evaluation by evaluation committees.

A personal letter states: "We have two or three times as many applications for evaluation as we can take care of this spring."

The Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher

Schools officially adopted the program of qualitative evaluation a little earlier than the Middle States Association. Its significant differences are expectations of more frequent re-evaluations and the use of *"Evaluative Criteria* as an important factor in accrediting, but not as the only basis." Since the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools do not officially accredit schools, their use of *Evaluative Criteria* will be for purposes of stimulating improvement in member schools and this does not require formal action by the associations.

The North Central Association and the Southern Association each has adopted the *Evaluative Criteria* in principle but not for purposes of accreditation. At its 1939 meeting the North Central Association, after full consideration, recommended that

> The commission continue its present practice of approving secondary schools upon the basis of the existing policies, regulations and criteria.
>
> The commission continue the use of *Evaluative Criteria* for purposes of stimulation and improvement of member schools. State committees may, at their discretion, require that schools seeking membership in the association apply the *Evaluative Criteria.*

These positions are reiterated by letters from officials of the North Central Association's Commission on Secondary Schools, from which the following is excerpted:

> I hesitate to state that we are in the process of shifting from our old rigid standards to a new evaluation based on the quality of work a high school is doing. . . . Secondary school administrators are still quite dubious about qualitative criteria. They seem to rest too much on subjective interpretation.
>
> My own personal feeling is that the moment the Cooperative Study materials become the basis for accreditment of secondary schools that moment will they lose their value as a basis for stimulating growth and improvement.

At its 1939 meeting, the Southern Association "adopted in principle" a program resembling that of the Middle States

Association but making it inoperative for accreditation purposes by the recommendation

> That the plan worked out by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards be adopted for evaluation and stimulation purposes pending the formulation of a plan for the use of these measures for accreditation purposes.

The 1940 meeting of the Southern Association did not approve plans for extending the use of *Evaluative Criteria* to accreditation.

As is commonly known, accreditation of secondary schools in the North Central and Southern associations is actually done by state committees, operating under association standards. Their use of *Evaluative Criteria* in accrediting new schools will vary all the way from zero to 100 per cent, depending on the attitude of the state committee. This method of accrediting, by the way, documents the trend toward more state responsibility and control of accreditation.

The salutary influence of the Cooperative Study on the spread of qualitative criteria for accreditation is more widespread than official use by the regional accrediting associations indicates. A large number of junior high schools and junior colleges are making independent use of the material. Groups in the outlying possessions of the United States and in foreign countries are improving their practices through the use of *Evaluative Criteria*. The National Association of High School Supervisors is recommending to its members the gradual introduction of the more valid and easily applicable criteria of the Cooperative Study. One religious education group has worked with the Cooperative Study in developing a special statement to fit its own schools. A national committee in the field of agricultural education has adopted many of the techniques and procedures of the study in developing its own set of criteria for evaluating agricultural education. There has been a mutual exchange of ideas on the qualitative evaluation of school libraries between the Cooperative Study and the American Library Association, a pioneer agency in the appli-

cation of qualitative criteria in the accreditation of its professional schools.

Qualitative Criteria in the Procedures for Evaluating Colleges and Universities

Progress in qualitative accreditation in higher education is being hindered by varying and conflicting criteria and standards which are being administered by a multiplicity of agencies. Where a high school is usually accredited by a state and a regional association, each using similar standards, the university of the same state may have its different colleges and curricula accredited by as many as thirty agencies whose purposes vary widely. For example, the Association of American Universities accredits a college on its ability to prepare students for graduate work, the American Association of University Women gives primary attention to the treatment accorded women students and faculty members, and the North Central Association accredits on the basis of an institution's effectiveness in attaining the whole of its self-determined purposes and objectives.

What may happen to a given institution under the pressure of these conflicting stimulants to a higher quality of work may be inferred from a series of pertinent questions raised by Dr. Kelly:

> Since the North Central Association accredits an institution as a whole, shall it accredit a university otherwise satisfactory but in which the law school is refused accreditation by the American Bar Association? Or does it alter the situation if the law school is or is not eligible to membership in the Association of American Law Schools? Or shall the Association of Teachers Colleges accredit (or admit to membership in the association) colleges of arts and sciences which educate teachers? Or shall the association of Collegiate Schools of Business refuse accreditation to curricula of business administration organized within colleges of arts and sciences, while the Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism accredits departments in colleges of arts and science as well as separately organized schools? At present the American Chemical Society is embarking on a career of accrediting departments of chemistry. This will introduce (especially if the example of chemistry is followed

by the other departments such as English, history, botany, etc.) new complications. Shall the Association of American Universities accredit a liberal arts college in which the chemistry department is denied accreditation by the American Chemical Society?[5]

John J. Tigert, president of the University of Florida, speaking for the Joint Accrediting Committee of the State Universities and Land-Grant College associations reiterates the criticisms made above and in addition indicts the thirty or more accrediting and membership groups for their use of outmoded standards:

> Another point on which your committee is unanimously agreed is that the standards used by most of these agencies are outmoded and the chief criticism is that they are of the quantitative character rather than qualitative, that is to say, they measure in units in a mechanical way the means of education rather than discovering what kind of educational product you are turning out.[6]

An increasing number of college accrediting groups are seeking remedies for both the jurisdictional and qualitative deficiencies in their procedures.

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

The Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of this association, with financial aid from the General Education Board, conducted the foundation research and experiment on which modern qualitative accreditation is based.[7] After five years of study its frontier thinkers promulgated in 1934 an evaluative procedure which its officials have spent the last six years learning to administer.

The revolutionary assumption and guiding concept of the new plan for accreditation is that a college shall be judged in

---

[5] Fred J. Kelly, *Collegiate Accrediting by Agencies Within States*, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1940, No. 3, p. 189.

[6] National Association of State Universities, *Proceedings*, Vol. 36, 1938.

[7] Under the general title *Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, the University of Chicago Press published the findings in seven monographs: Principles of Accrediting, The Faculty, Education Program, The Library, Student Personnel Service, Administration, and Finance.

terms of its avowed purposes and objectives rather than by a standardized pattern to which all colleges of the association must conform. Somewhat less revolutionary is the principle that the institution shall be judged as a functioning whole, and it is not assumed that the whole is merely the sum of the parts. The third conceptual frame of reference of the new accrediting proposal is that it shall make effective use of experienced professional judgment in interpreting the data available on an institution and in estimating the significant but intangible elements that enter into the determination of its quality. It should be emphasized that the substitution of qualitative evaluation for mechanical rating does not mean a lowering or lessening of quantitative consideration. Rather it has meant an increase in the amount and accuracy of quantitative data considered but it avoids the fallacy that quantity automatically assures quality.

The process of evaluation is illustrated by paraphrasing and abbreviating the report of the examiners on the library of a small college:

> The library is one of the disappointments of the institution. It is not easy to diagnose the situation. The building is impressive both inside and outside; there has been extensive support from foundations, alumni, and friends. By book holdings it classifies in the fifty-seventh percentile, and by periodical holdings in the sixty-seventh percentile—that is considerably above the average of libraries of the colleges of the association. Despite all this the library is not being used by the students and faculty. This is all the more surprising in view of the college's self-determined elaborate instructional program that can hardly be realized without the extensive use of an adequate library.
>
> In extenuation several explanations are offered. It was pointed out that most instructors of professorial rank have excellent personal libraries in their offices. Since the student body is small, upper classmen, especially honor students, are invited to use the instructor's library. A second explanation is that many of the students buy many books (verified by visiting their rooms) as a nucleus for their own libraries. A third explanation suggests that the relatively small percentage of the students to whom books are issued does not reflect the true situation—upper classmen have "their freshmen" sign for and return all books they use.

These explanations do not, however, absolve the college of the suspicion that it is failing to sincerely carry out its stated purpose. In other words, the use of the library would seem to be a touchstone for determining the educational sincerity of the institution.

If this college library had been measured by the quantity of its possessions it would have rated as superior; but when evaluated for functional importance in the life of the faculty and students it was judged to be inferior and to call into question rich course offerings dependent on library reading and research. To the writer, this illustration makes clear the difference between qualitative and quantitative accreditation. It demonstrates, as Samuel P. Capen has pointed out,[8] that the adequacy or excellence of an institution's resources is meaningless except in terms of guiding purposes and specific objectives. Space limitations forbid an illustration from other major areas such as faculty, curriculum, instruction, student personnel service, administration, finance, and athletics.

The courageous pursuit of this progressive and enlightened approach to college accreditation has been hard for even its proponents. They have found it difficult to judge the excellence of an individual institution without comparing it with other members of a group. In practice this has tended to give coordinate place to the percentile rank comparisons on the 84 items that make up the Institutional Pattern Map. In other words, if an examination of the checklists and schedules of *what an institution has* ranks it considerably below the fiftieth percentile of all of the colleges of the North Central Association, it takes real courage to accredit it even when *what it does* is acceptable in terms of its unique undertaking in higher education. It is even more difficult, on the other hand, to deny accreditation to a college which measures above the fiftieth percentile on the 84 items of the Institutional Pattern Map but that is as inadequate from a functional viewpoint as the library in the college of my illustration.

Andrew B. Martin, president of Ottawa University, seems

[8] *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges,* March 1932, p. 48.

to believe that the North Central Association is putting too much dependence on normative rating and too little on genuine evaluation in terms of the general and unique purposes of individual institutions. If the percentile norms are to continue in use he thinks they should be derived from institutions of a given size and type rather than from lumping together all of the institutions of the association. He is particularly critical of the association's assumption that member colleges may be excused from individual qualitative evaluation if their statistical rank on the Institutional Pattern Map is acceptable.[9]

While there probably is merit in these criticisms, the association is constantly working to clarify and implement its policies for accreditation on the basis of the individuality of the institution. How determinate qualitative evaluation is may be illustrated from paraphrased excerpts of the examiners' report recommending accreditation of a functionally acceptable college which was below the thirty-fifth percentile on a group of items ordinarily regarded as having a determining influence upon educational excellence:

> The examiners were distinctly impressed with the seriousness and sincerity, as well as with the high quality of the educational activities of this college. It was therefore perplexing to find the following especially low percentile rankings: master's and doctor's degrees of the faculty, 15th percentile; publications of the faculty, 14th percentile; faculty salaries, 11th percentile; library holdings and expenditures, 23d percentile; educational expenditure and debt per student, 15th percentile; stable income per student, 4th percentile; athletic administration, 11th percentile; housing and boarding of students, 31st percentile; operation and care of the physical plant, 34th percentile.
>
> The strong features of the college as indicated by higher percentile ratings are in the areas of faculty competence, curriculum, instruction, personnel service, and administration.
>
> Despite the low ratings the examiners were impressed by the personal qualifications and the evident competency of the faculty for the work they were doing. Keen awareness of their educational responsibility is

---

[9] Andrew B. Martin, "North Central Accreditation and Institutional Aims," *School and Society*, LI (March 16, 1940), 347-50.

evidenced by familiarity with the broader viewpoint of education, the readiness with which controversial issues are evaluated, the facility with which questions bearing upon educational processes or methods are discussed, familiarity with the personalities and theories of leading educators, and their consciousness and appreciation of the objectives of other departments.

A qualitative assessment of the other statistically low items leaves them in as favorable a light as the faculty, seen in the judgment rendered in the last quoted paragraph. Such accreditation restores human intelligence and professional experience to the usefulness it may reasonably be expected to have in giving direction to higher education. Of course such accreditation is a two-edged sword and, in the hands of biased or incompetent persons, would be less effective than inflexible quantitative standards, but there is no reason to suppose the evaluative procedures will get into such hands.

OTHER REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The commissions on institutions of higher education of the remaining five regional associations have contributed nothing significant to the theory or practice of qualitative accrediting. The New England and Western associations do not accredit colleges, although the former maintains a membership list based on legal authorization to grant degrees and on simple quantitative standards adopted in 1923. Despite the absence of qualitative stimulation from an accrediting association, the New England colleges use qualitative criteria as aids in admission and graduation, and in rating the effectiveness of other of their activities and facilities.

In April 1939 the Northwest Association and the Southern Association adopted the criteria and procedures of the North Central Association, the former declaring in its 1940 statement of policies:

> Until the Northwest Association shall have developed its own manual especially adapted to the conditions of the Northwest, the Manual of the North Central Association Commission on Higher Education shall

be used in accrediting higher schools in the Northwest Association territory.

Only one year has elapsed and there is no report on how many institutions have been evaluated. M. C. Huntley, executive secretary of the Southern Association, advises by letter:

> While the new standards have been broadened, they retain much of the quantitativeness of the old standards. The commission has not begun active application of the new standards. In the accrediting procedure it is expected the policy of the North Central Association will be followed to a marked extent. Our commission does not attempt scoring of the schedules.

In November 1938 the Middle States Association adopted a set of qualitative criteria by which, according to the secretary, Frank H. Bowles, it has since evaluated ten colleges seeking accreditation and forty of the institutions holding membership in the association. The philosophy and guiding concepts of each of its sixteen criteria are in accord with the principles enunciated by the Commission on Higher Institutions of the North Central Association and the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. In the application of these criteria the Middle States Association does not use comparative percentile ratings and checklists or other schedules for gathering extensive factual data. Its criteria, however, occasionally show more qualitativeness than the corresponding item from the North Central Association. For example, the North Central depends on the quantity of degrees and graduate work while the Middle States Association says: "The institutions in which college teachers have done undergraduate and graduate work successfully are of more significance than the degrees they hold." In devoting major criterion IX to the college catalogue, the Middle States Association emphasizes material not evaluated by other associations. The only other significant variant in its procedures is the use of supplementary criteria for teachers colleges and technical schools and their separate listing from the liberal arts college.

MEMBERSHIP ASSOCIATIONS

A general disclaimer of accreditation intentions is usually entered by the membership associations. They do, however, exert a significant influence on member institutions and when their requirements go beyond those of the general accrediting agencies the effect may be inimical to the main purposes of the institution. When these untoward outcomes occur they usually are from the ambition of colleges to be on prestige carrying lists rather than because of pressure from the membership association in pursuing its legitimate goals.

Many such associations impose no standards of their own, but stimulate affiliated institutions to a closer observance of their regional and other accreditation. The Association of American Colleges and the Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church are representative of the membership associations having such a policy. Other associations require their affiliates to observe practices peculiar to the purpose they are promoting; as, for example, the American Association of University Women, Phi Beta Kappa, and Sigma Xi. Several membership associations use the concepts of comprehensive qualitative accreditation as, for example, the declarations of the Association of American Universities that "weakness in some of these [facilities] may be compensated for by unusual strength in others" and that the association "has no standards or definite rules and specifications to be applied in an exact and mechanical fashion." [10]

QUALITATIVE CRITERIA IN THE PROCEDURES FOR ACCREDITING PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS

Vested jurisdictional interests hamper the introduction of qualitative criteria and evaluation procedures into professional and technical schools. Usually such an institution must try to please three masters: (1) practitioners who tend to dominate the lowest level of formal accreditation, (2) school

[10] *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Fortieth Annual Conference*, Association of American Universities, 1938, p. 25.

officials who control standards for membership in the professional association and hence the higher levels of accreditation, and (3) the states which control the licensure of its graduates. Stated more bluntly, the practitioners and the professors, especially in the older professions, have engaged for a quarter of a century in a determined struggle for the control of the accreditation and licensure machinery. But an interdependent society is teaching them the necessity for cooperation. They are rapidly developing integrated councils which reduce duplication of effort and increasingly make use of qualitative criteria.

As an example of this cooperative effort, the Association of American Medical Colleges, the Federation of State Medical Boards, and the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association have recently joined in conducting a resurvey of medical schools, presumably by their quantitative standards, "Essentials of an Acceptable Medical School," supplemented by undisclosed qualitative criteria. Pharmacy, dentistry, and engineering use this advanced form of coordination of accrediting agencies and, as is shown in a later section of this paper, they greatly exceed medicine in the use of comprehensive evaluation by qualitative criteria.

During the 1930's a number of the professional organizations of technical specialties related to medicine attempted, under the auspices of the Council on Medical Education, to accredit their schools or curricula, but there is little evidence of qualitative criteria or the use of evaluative procedures in applying quantitative standards. Among the agencies were the International Association of Boards of Examiners in Optometry, the clinical laboratory technicians, the physical therapy technicians, the occupational therapy group, and the examining boards in the medical specialties.

Dental education standards have lagged because of strife between practitioners and professors. Following several unfruitful efforts, there was created in 1938 a Council on Dental Education of the American Dental Association which in April 1939 issued a "Preliminary Statement" on qualitative ac-

creditation;[11] "the first thing of the kind in dentistry ever to be promulgated in this country," writes Minor J. Terry, secretary of the council. The following slightly paraphrased quotations from the "Preliminary Statement" indicate the genuineness of the qualitative approach to accreditation:

Accreditment will be in terms of institutions of dental education as a whole, but with reasonable variations so far as conformity to these policies are concerned. The council adopts the principle that excellence in certain features may compensate for inferior characteristics in other features.

Procedures for the accreditment of an institution will include consideration of the nature of its objectives, and their relation to its educational practices.

An institution should have a faculty competent in terms of its objectives and organized for effective teaching.

The curriculum shall be in keeping with stated objectives and the educational qualifications of the students admitted. Organization of the curriculum is the responsibility of the institution.

Predental education should be viewed as a source of proper study habits, intellectual self-reliance, knowledge of scientific method, etc., rather than as the mastery of subject matter as factual material, often considered to be distinctly preparatory in character. . . . Therefore, admission should be determined by evaluation of all available and significant information.

Promotions and graduation should be on the basis of demonstrated achievement rather than on the completion of mere quantitative laboratory and clinical requirements.

The extent to which the library resources are utilized in the educational program will be regarded as an index to the effectiveness of instruction.

Dr. Terry's letter tells the rest of the story: "We are at the present time working on the curriculum which, together with other material, will form our final criteria to be used as a 'yardstick' in evaluating dental schools of the country."

Since August 1937 the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education has "used both qualitative and quantitative

[11] Council on Dental Education, "Preliminary Statement," *Journal of Dentistry*, III (April 1939), 236-45.

criteria in determining the acceptability of a college for accreditation." The professional associations of the practitioners, professors, and state examiners were aided in the preparation of these standards by "the American Council on Education and the departments of education of some of the states interested in advancing pharmaceutical education." The official statement continues with a summary concerning qualitative criteria:

> Qualitative evaluation has been done in part through information from questionnaires and in part through visits of inspection by committees consisting of at least two members of the council. The qualitative criteria include: (1) Qualifications, experience, scientific or scholarly publications, and professional contacts of the members of the faculty; (2) Quality of instruction in pharmacy departments and in cooperating departments; (3) Scholastic records of students; (4) Extracurricular participation in local and state pharmaceutical organizations; and (5) Attitudes and policy of the administration towards teaching and research. [12]

Out of the 70 colleges of pharmacy in the United States, 62 made application for accreditment and 54 were evaluated and accepted. Four of those accepted are designated for reinspection in 1942 and the others are considered accredited until 1944.

The Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture is the latest professional group to attempt to organize its accrediting procedures through an integrated council of practitioners, professors, and licensure officials—the best machinery we know for preventing duplication of effort and the tendency to work at cross purposes. A letter from Godwin Smith, secretary of the Collegiate Schools of Architecture, indicates the association's status with regard to qualitative accreditation:

> Until two years ago our standards were purely quantitative. At that time we tried a qualitative "check-up" by a committee of the association but it turned into a quantitative survey.
>
> After this we decided the schools should not accredit themselves.

---

[12] *Accredited Colleges of Pharmacy* (Baltimore: American Council on Pharmaceutical Education, 1940), p. 4.

Through the cooperation of the American Institute of Architects, the National Council of Architectural Registration Boards, and this association an accrediting board has been created to make the necessary qualitative survey. This committee is scheduled to begin its labors next month. Its report combined with our quantitative study should provide the data for accrediting.

Through the Engineers' Council for Professional Development the schools of engineering have made what probably is the most successful attack on both the jurisdictional and standard problems of accreditation. Unsatisfactory standards and the irritations from a multiplicity of accrediting agencies led the seven [13] leading engineering societies to form the Engineers' Council for Professional Development in 1932. By 1935 comprehensive criteria for evaluation had come into being and up to 1939 the E.C.P.D. had been invited by 136 schools to accredit 678 curricula. Of these curricula, 392 have been unconditionally accredited, 107 conditionally approved, and 179 judged as not yet ready for accreditment.

The high degree of qualitativeness in the guiding concepts of E.C.P.D. accreditation is indicated in the following statement of policy:

> The Engineers' Council for Professional Development has adhered rigidly to the policy that it should set no fixed standards for use as yardsticks in measuring the quality of engineering instruction. On the contrary, institutions and curricula are judged on broad general grounds, rather than on details, and each institution is appraised in the light of local conditions. The E.C.P.D. strongly believes that there should be no rigid "norm" for engineering education, and that institutions should be accorded wide latitude to decide for themselves upon educational policies.[14]

---

[13] The constituent societies of the Engineers' Council for Professional Development are the American Society of Civil Engineers, American Institute of Mining and Metallurgical Engineers, American Society of Mechanical Engineers, American Institute of Electrical Engineers, American Institute of Chemical Engineers, Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, and the National Council of State Boards of Engineering Examiners.

[14] *Sixth Annual Report* (New York: Engineers' Council for Professional Development, 1938), p. 11.

The standards and procedures are equally indicative of comprehensive qualitative approach. In addition to schedules for gathering data on nine quantitative factors of the acceptable school and curricula, a committee of inspection visits the institution to evaluate that data and to apply the following qualitative criteria:

> (1) Qualifications, experience, intellectual interests, attainments, and professional productivity of members of the faculty; (2) Standards and quality of instruction in engineering departments and in cooperating departments; (3) Scholastic work of students; (4) Records of graduates both in graduate study and in practice; and (5) Attitude and policy of administration toward its engineering division and toward teaching, research, and scholarly production.[15]

Through its regional committees the E.C.P.D. keeps currently informed of changes taking place in the accredited curricula and its plans call for periodic reinspection at intervals not to exceed five years.

Though less commendable than the integrated central council of practitioners, professors, and licensure officials, a useful service is being done by the type of coordination which agrees on a division of responsibility between several agencies concerned. The principle is illustrated by the American Bar Association controlling the lowest level of accreditation for law schools and the Association of American Law Schools controlling more advanced forms of accreditation through its membership standards. While there is little evidence of qualitative evaluation in the initial accrediting of law schools, the Council on Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar of the American Bar Association implies it is at the threshold of qualitative accrediting:

> The standards now are virtually the same as adopted in 1921 with the exception of Section 1, (f) which was adopted in 1938 and gives the council some discretionary power in making its approval.
>
> Our standards are now being subjected to re-examination and we expect within the next three or four months to publish some quite full data with reference to them. [From a letter responding to my inquiry.]

---

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 13.

The evaluative power conferred by the section of the standards mentioned reads as follows:

> An accredited law school shall be a school which in the judgment of the Council on Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar possesses reasonably adequate facilities and maintains a sound educational policy; provided, however, that any decision of the council in these respects shall be subject to review by the House of Delegates on the petition of any school adversely affected.

The National Conference of Bar Examiners and the Association of American Law Schools are consulted by the council in its study of standards. Cooperation between the three groups has been helpful in improving the standards and techniques of licensing boards, a lamentably weak spot in states where non-law school practitioners dominate the board of bar examiners.

While making a larger use of qualitative criteria, the American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism, the American Veterinary Medical Association, the National League of Nursing Education, and the Council on Nursing Education of the Catholic Hospital Association are at about the level of coordinative effort indicated for legal education.

The origin and status of the excellent program of qualitative accrediting carried on by the Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association is succinctly told in excerpts from a memorandum supplied by the secretary, Anita M. Hostetter:

> Library accreditation was initiated in 1923 through the aid of a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. In 1925 the A.L.A. Council adopted minimum standards, submitted by the Board of Education for Librarianship.
>
> The limitations of quantitative standards, particularly for library schools, became evident within a few years. The currently used criteria, "Minimum Requirements for Library Schools," and evaluative procedures were adopted by the A.L.A. Council in 1933. In the formulation of these requirements the board had to a marked degree the assistance of the Association of American Library Schools.
>
> Under the minimum requirements, opportunity is provided for the

organization and administration of a library school in conformity with the conditions and policies of the institution of which the library school is a part. Library schools are permitted and urged to adopt definite objectives in relation to the needs of libraries in the areas served. Facilities, support, curriculum, faculty, and other resources in a library school are therefore considered for accreditation in relation to the self-adopted objectives and in relation to institutional conditions and policies.

The number of library schools accredited by these evaluative procedures now totals 31.

The degree of coordination of effort is indicated in the declaration that the board had the "assistance" of the Association of American Library Schools in formulating accrediting criteria. The statement also indicates that library school accreditation is geared to mesh with the general organization and purposes of the university of which it is a part.

In December 1933 the Executive Council of the Society of American Foresters initiated a study of standards for classifying schools of forestry. This was completed in 1935 and 20 schools are now accredited. The council's solution of the qualitative-quantitative quandary follows:

> The methods adopted in grading the schools were intended to avoid as far as possible all personal bias or prejudice, without eliminating the consideration of the intangible factors of personality which in the last analysis determine the efficiency of professional instruction.
>
> As the criticisms received have been about equally divided between those who do not trust a mechanical rating of physical or measurable factors, and those who feel that bias cannot be eliminated from the intangible elements, it is hoped that a mean has been attained in which both of these considerations have been given proper weight.[16]

This mean consisted of a percentage weighting of the seven major factors judged to condition the efficiency of a forestry school, namely, departmental status, 6 per cent; instruction, 16 per cent; faculty, 24 per cent; financial support, 17 per cent; equipment, 12.5 per cent; field instruction, 12.5 per cent; and historical and alumni factors, 12 per cent—the

[16] H. H. Chapman, *Professional Forestry Schools* (Washington: Society of American Foresters, 1935), p. vi.

weights total 100 per cent. All relevant factual data on each of the factors were gathered and weighted for evaluation by arbitrarily assigned percentages, on the theory that "even an arbitrary measure expresses judgment better than general phrases."

In addition to the evaluation of quantitative items, as Professor Chapman points out in a letter, "there is a specific weighting of such intangibles as reputation of faculty for teaching and ability of graduates, the latter based on federal civil service grades, positions attained, and salaries earned." Obviously, the historical and alumni factors are also intangibles. As an indication that continuous growth is expected Professor Chapman writes: "the next general accrediting will be in the year 1942, which inspection will be required in order to weigh more fully the intangible factors such as the use of libraries and the effectiveness of instructors."

The American Association of Theological Schools is using advanced forms of qualitative criteria and evaluation procedures. E. H. Roberts, the secretary, advises in a letter: "The men who drew up the accrediting plan of our association studied very carefully the criteria of the Commission on Higher Institutions of the North Central Association." In truth, the plan is a judicious and discerning adaptation of North Central principles and practices applied to a specialized group of institutions. It would be repetitious to cite the details.[17] The only significant innovation is the use of 22 numerals to indicate deviations from what the accrediting commission considers acceptable practice. Each of the 54 accredited schools have from one to four of these notations of divergence. Qualitative accreditation was adopted in 1936 and within two years 61 of the 79 schools in the association asked to be evaluated.

The American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business is representative of professional schools new to the ac-

---

[17] Commission on Accrediting, *First Report, 1938*, American Association of Theological Schools.

crediting venture and just on the verge of beginning qualitative accrediting. The association's standards reflect the qualitative practices of the regional associations and specifically provide that "the Executive Committee shall from year to year establish criteria to serve as membership standards. Each applicant shall be inspected by a committee of one to three persons. There shall be a re-evaluation every five years."

The amorphous nature of the profession of teaching makes difficult an inclusive statement of its provisions for accreditation. Teacher education in such professional specialties as medicine or law is governed by the standards of its membership association. At the secondary and elementary school level, accreditation of curricula is largely controlled through licensure provisions of state education departments. Directors of certification are regularly engaged in such evaluation but there is little of record to document the criteria and procedures used. In general, they follow the practices of their state and regional accrediting associations and those of the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

Teachers colleges (but usually not college and university schools and departments of education) are accredited by the American Association of Teachers Colleges. Initially, this organization performed the indispensable function of stimulating the expanding normal schools to become colleges which the regional associations could no longer ignore or refuse to accredit. As a consequence, for any given period the standards of the association, except as they relate to training school and related professional facilities, have closely paralleled a composite of the criteria and procedures of the regional associations. The association's Committee on Accrediting makes generous and intelligent use of evaluative procedures. "As bases for more qualitative standards," Charles W. Hunt advises, "the Committee on Standards and Surveys has studies in progress on curriculum, personnel, extension teaching, library, and health."

Finally, there is a group of accrediting agencies working in specialized areas which at best exhibit only rudimentary forms

of either interagency coordination or qualitative evaluation. They are for the most part membership groups whose admission requirements have as yet added nothing significant to accrediting theory or practice. It is probable that among the better of such agencies should be listed the Association of Collegiate Schools of Nursing and the American Home Economics Association. While the National Association of Schools of Music accredits music schools for the Southern Association, it belongs largely in the category of this paragraph. The American Association of Schools of Social Work is likewise classified because it accredits units only in institutions on the approved list of the American Association of Universities, and because a majority of its admission requirements are of a quantitative nature. On the other side of the ledger, the secretary, Marion Hathway writes: "Since we have been able to provide for field service, qualitative evaluation has become really possible. We are in the process of studying the whole accrediting problem through a special committee of the association."

Integration

This paper has attempted to show that accrediting an institution in terms of its own philosophy and objectives is something new under the sun. It argues that the assumptions and guiding concepts of qualitative accrediting promise to do for educational institutions what the principles of progressive education have done for individual students, namely, remove the standardizing shackles that have forced lockstep progress and conformity and substitute incentives to growth which permit richer individuality within the framework of a democratic social order.

While the survey shows that the principles of comprehensive qualitative accreditation are spreading more rapidly than has almost any other idea in the history of American education, there are still many honest doubters and a larger company who give mere lip-service to the idea. To its leaders the movement seems no more than restoring intelligence and pro-

fessional experience to their proper place in furthering the progress of educational institutions. But to the protagonist of quantitative accreditation, qualitative evaluation seems to mean a return to rating institutions on the bias, predilection, and subjective impressions of fallible human beings who also may have an axe to grind. The lip-service converts shout hosannas, adopt qualitative evaluation "in principle," and continue using the rigid quantitative standards their predecessors have administered for a quarter of a century.

A survey of the admission requirements of the leading accrediting and membership associations establishes the fact that in 1930 none of them used comprehensive qualitative criteria or well-defined evaluative procedures. Prior to 1934 the use of qualitative procedures was sporadic and ephemeral. For the associations 1930-34 was a period of articulate discontent with, or self-examination of, their requirements for admission to membership. Possibly the depression prevented many institutions from meeting the cast-iron quantitative requirements and caused their officials to look with favor upon evaluation in terms of local conditions. At any rate, between 1934 and 1940 the leading accrediting and membership organizations adopted new admission requirements which included a phenomenal increase in qualitative criteria and evaluation procedures. Of course this upsurge was not merely a response to the economic and social pressures of the depression. Part of it must be credited to the maturing wisdom of the educational statesmen who conceived and executed the frontier research in accreditation sponsored by the Commission on Higher Institutions of the North Central Association. The seminal nature of *Evaluation of Higher Institutions* is indicated in almost every set of standards from which this report has quoted.

An examination of the qualitative provisions of accrediting and membership standards indicates certain weakness which undoubtedly will be remedied through clarifications incident to intelligent use. Qualitative evaluation was conceived to apply to unitary institutions such as a liberal arts college or a

college preparatory high school. Some of the more complex or more specialized institutions have made the mistake of taking into their accrediting procedures, without the necessary modification, evaluative concepts and devices which worked well in their original setting but which apparently do not do so in the new context. Neither the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards nor the *Evaluation of Higher Institutions* has fully resolved its conflicting tendency to, at one and the same time, evaluate an institution by comparative norms and by ratings in terms of its own purposes and objectives.

It is now clear that any comprehensive plan of qualitative evaluation will require increases in the amount and scope of information to be obtained from the colleges. Unless the multiplicity of accrediting and membership organizations can be reduced or their activities coordinated, colleges and universities may be unduly burdened by their demands. It is shown that a measure of coordination may be secured by reliance on other agencies for essential information, as is done by the Association of American Colleges and several of the organizations which accredit professional schools. Further agreement on the standardization and centralized use of forms for gathering information would reduce the labor for all concerned while leaving evaluative freedom to autonomous agencies.[18]

It may well be a mistake to permit liberal professionals to formulate and include qualitative criteria in standards which may be ignored by the practitioners who more largely control the state legal machinery for licensure. For instance, if the Association of American Law Schools should rate its members, and hence their graduates, by criteria which are not acceptable to the National Conference of Bar Examiners, the conflict would need to be resolved. The Engineers' Council for Professional Development is an excellent example of ac-

---

[18] For details, see Lawrence L. Bethel's unpublished (1940) dissertation for the doctorate at Yale University.

creditation so coordinated as to avoid this pitfall. This central council moves only as fast as it can get the cooperation of its constituent professors, practitioners, and state officials who control licensure. This council takes the place of six or seven accrediting bodies, including the much publicized American Institute of Chemical Engineers. Since its examination of major curricula (not departments) is in terms of the self-determined purposes and objectives of an institution, the practice adds to the evaluation while reducing jurisdictional disputes and facilitating cooperation with the state agencies having legal responsibility for a particular phase of engineering education.

The conclusion of this paper is that comprehensive qualitative evaluation is exerting a powerful and salutary influence on the educational institutions of America. So novel a conception probably will outgrow or simplify some of its swaddling clothes, such as checklists, schedules, "thermometers," pattern maps, and other paraphernalia. Further experience undoubtedly will increase the skill and insight essential to more effectual evaluation. Certainly the increased amount and scope of information required makes it imperative for the accrediting agencies to coordinate and integrate their activities.

Who Belongs to the Council?

By DONALD J. SHANK

IN THE plethora of educational organizations, the teacher or administrator frequently finds himself confused. This confusion is, however, a direct result of the proclivity of his fellow-workers toward social and professional communication. Indeed, the apparent multiplicity of societies and associations lends credence to the legend that whenever two or more school teachers get together their first act is to draw up a constitution and elect officers.

Although the roster of professional organizations in the United States may seem excessively long to a layman or an educator from another country, the number and vitality of these formal or informal groups are in reality evidence of the strength of American education. In a system characterized by local autonomy, voluntary educational organizations serve effectively as clearing houses for the establishment of policy and the development of procedures. At their best, these organizations stimulate local workers to improve local practice; at their worst, they broaden the geographic horizons of educators by furnishing an excuse for an annual jaunt to a convention. In either extreme, they are indispensable.

In view of the significance of voluntary educational organizations in the American scene, we really know very little about them. The *Educational Directory* of the United States Office of Education lists approximately 450 important national educational associations. If state, county, and local groups were added, the total would probably be many thousands. Nowhere do we have a complete list of their names, objectives, or members. Most of the million or more workers in education have connections actively or passively with one or more of the organizations. But no one knows definitely how much interlocking exists in the membership of the groups.

All varieties of membership and membership regulations which the fertile brains of a social-planner might possibly devise are included in these groups. One organization aims democratically to enroll all the teachers of the public schools; another selects its members with all the honor and ceremony of a royal academy; another operates as a white collar trade union; others, like medieval guilds, include only highly trained technicians in specialized fields; others commission themselves guardians of educational standards and keep wary eyes on erring educational institutions. The list could easily be expanded.

The confused school man who faces this complex must find it very difficult to apportion his time and his meager financial resources among the numerous organizations which call upon him for participation. This situation is an effective argument for a study and public presentation by each organization of its objectives, program, and membership. Such an analysis, if carried forward on a broad scale, would help the bewildered school man and possibly improve the total effectiveness of each organization.

Following this reasoning this article will attempt to apply it partially at least to the American Council on Education, one of the many organizations about which there is considerable lack of understanding. Rather comprehensive studies of the objectives and program of the Council have already been issued,[1] but little has been written regarding its membership. For the general educational public, as well as members of the Council, certain observations regarding its membership may clarify the place of the Council in the educational scene.

History of the Council

To explain what the American Council on Education is now, it is necessary to trace briefly its history and try to discover how it became the organization that it is. Since mem-

[1] See the annual July issue of The Educational Record which contains the report of the President, and the *History and Activities of the American Council on Education* issued annually in October.

bership should be governed by the objectives which are set for any organization, this discussion will also cover changes in the general purpose of the Council. In considering the membership of the American Council on Education, one important factor should be kept in mind: *the Council has always been an organization of organizations, and has never had individual members.* This peculiar, but by no means unique, arrangement was dictated by the manner in which the Council was formed.

When the representatives of eleven important national educational associations assembled voluntarily in January 1918, the United States was at war. All educational institutions, and the eleven organizations in particular, were attempting to serve national needs in every possible way. The war emergency made clear to each organization the imperative need of bringing together the educational resources of the country. In their informal conferences the eleven associations saw a means of cooperating and advising together for the better interests of the country and education itself, without surrendering their individual members, interests, or programs. Consequently, they created the Emergency Council on Education, which several months later broadened its objectives beyond the problems of the war emergency and became the American Council on Education.

The founding organizations became *constituent* members of the new Council and soon added to their number other important educational associations. Several educational groups with interests related to the Council indicated their desire to participate, and provision was made for their inclusion as *associate* members.

At the December 1918 and May 1919 meetings a constitution was adopted which defined the objectives of the Council in these words:

> The general object of the Council is to promote and carry out cooperative action in matters of common interest to the associations represented. *It is understood that such matters will lie mainly in the field of university and college work, and in related educational fields.* [Italics

mine.] The Council was organized to meet national needs in time of war and will always seek to render patriotic service. It will also encourage international cooperation in educational matters.

For this discussion the sentence in italics is of most interest. Since the founding organizations represented all levels of education—elementary and secondary schools, normal schools, colleges and universities, graduate schools, and professional schools—it is not easy to explain why it was included. Several possible answers can be advanced: (1) The problems which first faced the Council, for example, the adjustment of the Student Army Training Corps to colleges, dealt with a war emergency which necessarily affected institutions of higher education more than elementary and secondary education; (2) eight of the eleven founding groups were active only in colleges and universities and it was probably true that many workers in higher education were then somewhat skeptical about the importance of many educational problems outside their domain; (3) the National Education Association, one of the founding organizations, already had under way many cooperative activities in elementary and secondary education. Perhaps all or none of these suggestions influenced the decision.

Another aspect of the same problem arose at the December 1918 meeting when arrangements were made to include in the constitution provision for *institutional* members. On December 3 the Council took the following action:

It was voted as the sense of the meeting that a new class of institutional members should be created to which the Council may, at its discretion, refer questions for a referendum vote. Such institutional members may be colleges or universities, normal schools, technical schools or city school systems, contributing not less than $100 per year to the Council.

Three days later when the provisional constitution was adopted the words "normal schools or city school systems" had disappeared from the section describing institutional members. "Colleges, universities and technical schools of similar

grade" were included but normal schools and city school systems were left outside the gate.

In May 1926 the constitution was amended to add to the phrase "colleges, universities and professional and technical schools of similar grade" the words, "and of other organizations of high standing that carry on higher educational activities, or cooperate with educational institutions in improving instruction. . . ." The discussion of the Executive Committee indicates that this phrase was intended to open the door of institutional membership to business and industrial organizations in order to secure mutually helpful cooperation between industry and education. At the request of the Executive Committee, invitations were submitted to a number of national firms, but nothing came of the move. The interpretation of this constitutional provision has never been amended. Consequently such organizations may still be considered eligible for membership.

Within the framework here sketched briefly the Council operated for fourteen years from 1918 to 1932. Although the legalistic byplay of constitution-amending is usually the favorite extracurricular pastime of educators, there were only minor changes in the constitution of the Council during this period.

The complicated constitutional developments of the period from December 1932 through May 1934 more than made up for the years of constitutional quietude. A reading of the minutes of the Executive Committee and special sessions of the full Council indicates that two related major issues were at stake in the reorganization which took place during these years. The first issue was the desirability of extending the scope of the Council's objectives and activities. After two years of discussion the members of the Council voted unanimously at a special meeting in February 1934 to remove from the definition of objectives the sentence which limited the Council to activities "mainly in the field of college and university work." This action was a recognition of the fact that most educational problems extended vertically through the educational structure, and that an organization was needed

which could facilitate studies along the whole educational ladder.

The second issue dealt with the place of institutional members in the program of the Council. A special committee recommended to the Executive Committee in April 1933 that institutional memberships be abolished and that the Council restrict its membership to educational organizations. It seems that the colleges and universities which had played an active and important part in the support of the Council during the earlier years objected to this move. In fact, the issue was finally settled by opening membership to educational units at all levels, by giving the vote to institutional members, and by making their representatives eligible to hold office.

By May 1934 the constitution of the Council had been amended to cover this important problem in this manner:

> The general object of the Council and the basis of membership therein shall be to advance American education in any or all of its phases through comprehensive, voluntary, cooperative action on the part of educational associations, organizations, and institutions, and in the fulfillment of that purpose to initiate, promote, and carry out such systematic studies, cooperative experiments, conferences, and other enterprises as may be required for the public welfare and approved by the Council. The Council was organized in time of war. . . .

With this broadening of the base of the Council the Executive Committee later voted to open institutional membership to state departments of education, city and town school systems, and certain private schools and special institutions of distinctive types.

This general summary of the changes in Council membership covers its entire history. The number of associations and institutions active in the Council's membership since 1920 is shown in the following table:

	1920	*1925*	*1930*	*1935*	*1940*
Constituent members	16	16	25	26	38
Associate members	8	12	21	24	43
Institutional members	113	193	240	225	416
Total	137	221	286	275	497

The following sections will describe briefly the makeup of these classes of membership and indicate their place in the total Council program.

Constituent Members

As the history of the Council clearly demonstrates, the constituent members are the heart of the Council. They founded the organization and have always controlled it. Each constituent member names three delegates to the Council who vote as a unit through a delegated representative. Although other classes of membership have been added and although the members in these new classes are more numerous than the constituent associations, the constitution provides that "no action shall be valid unless supported by a majority of the constituent members present and voting." Until 1927 the names of the constituent members appeared in the constitution. Until 1933 only the representatives of the constituent members were eligible for office in the Council. Each constituent member pays annual dues of $100.

Only so far as the Council can secure the active support of the important national associations at all levels of education can it hope to serve effectively as a center of cooperation. In the past 22 years a steadily increasing number of associations have affiliated with the Council as constituent members. The Executive Committee, which is responsible for the admission of all classes of members, has in general accepted any legitimate organization, engaged in various educational activities, which indicates genuine interest in the Council's work. The 38 constituent members now enrolled might be classified as follows:

9 organizations of teachers and administrators at all levels

7 organizations of colleges and universities, from junior colleges to graduate schools and extension divisions

12 organizations representing various professional schools including business, dentistry, engineering, medicine, pharmacy, nursing, and teaching

3 organizations active as regional accrediting groups for colleges and secondary schools

2 organizations of denominational schools and colleges
5 organizations of various interests including private schools, international education, libraries, university women, and Boy Scouts

Many of these organizations maintain national headquarters and large executive staffs. Others operate relatively informally. This sometimes makes it difficult for the Council to assure that all interests are adequately represented in the planning of its activities. However, the wide range of projects and investigations which the Council has undertaken has served to enlist the interest and cooperation of all the constituent members at one point or another.

In the final analysis the responsibility of securing a voice in the deliberations of the Council and of using the results of its work rests with the respective constituent members. Each organization must maintain the primary contact with its members in the field. Although the Council always tries to spread its work through its members, it cannot itself hope to reach the hundreds of thousands of school people for whom the work was done. . .

Associate Members

Second oldest of the classes of membership in the Council are the associate members. When the Council was founded, a number of organizations expressed their interest in the work. Most of these groups were smaller organizations which did not maintain national headquarters and which could not afford the $100 fee of constituent members. Others were only indirectly concerned with education. The Council wanted their help, however, and created associate memberships with annual dues of $10. These organizations are entitled to send representatives to meetings of the Council without right to vote. In most cases the chief executive officer of each associate member acts as liaison officer with the Council.

In the 43 organizations now holding associate membership the varieties represented in the constituent membership are multiplied. In general, however, the associate members are groups of special administrative officers such as registrars,

deans, personnel officers, and publicity men or groups of subject-matter specialists such as historians, modern language teachers, physical education teachers, and others.

Institutional Members

In the beginning, colleges and universities were urged to give their financial support to the new Council. In fact the early books of the Council indicate that 100 of these institutions contributed sums ranging from $25 to $100 to help get the Council started. When colleges and universities were admitted to institutional membership in December 1918, the philosophy "from each according to his ability" was adopted by the Executive Committee for the scale of dues. Colleges and universities paid annual dues of $500, $300, $250, $200, and $100, depending upon the size of the institution's budget. It is difficult to say if the conclusion "to each according to his need" was in the minds of the Executive Committee, but a good case could probably be made for so thinking.

In June 1933 the differentiated scale was abolished and dues were set for all institutional members at $100 annually. In May 1935 these dues were reduced to $50 a year.

The Executive Committee has always had authority for determining eligibility of institutional members within the framework of the constitution. To assist in this work, the Council in 1920 published its first list of accredited institutions of higher education, which was also used as the basis of Council membership. The 1920 list included institutions accredited by the Association of American Universities, the North Central Association, the Southern Association, and the University of California. In 1922 the Middle States and Maryland Association was added. Three years later the University of California list was discontinued and the Northwest Association list was accepted in its place. In 1930 the New England Association list was added. When the publication of the accredited list of colleges and universities was given up in 1935, the Council continued to accept recognition by any of these several associations as the basis for membership. Later that year the accredited institutions of the

American Association of Teachers Colleges were also made eligible. In October 1935 the Executive Committee at long last modified the decision of December 1918 and voted to open institutional membership to the 48 state departments of education and city school systems of cities with populations of 200,000 or more. In 1937 the privilege of institutional membership was extended to "not more than 25 special institutions and private secondary schools of distinctive type." With the reduction of the city population limit to 100,000 in 1939 and the inclusion in 1940 of selected school systems of suburban communities, towns, counties, and smaller cities, this report on institutional membership regulations is brought up to date.

The 416 institutional members, as of July 1940, represent 46 states, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii. Only Idaho and Nevada are not included. The following table indicates the number in each classification:

Universities	123
Colleges	189
Teachers colleges	35
Junior colleges	15
Negro institutions	15
Professional and technical institutions	14
City and county school systems	10
State departments of education	6
Private secondary schools	6
Miscellaneous	3

The institutional members, as supplements to both the constituent and associate members, have played an increasingly important part in the Council's program. Each institution names a representative to the Council, who is eligible to vote and hold office. In addition to this participation, the institutional members furnish to the Council a direct and ready channel for the consideration of problems and the dissemination of results. This national laboratory of workers in the field has been invaluable.

Conclusion

This article began with the thesis that every organization should consider and present to the confused school worker a clear picture of its objectives, program, and membership. Because others have already attempted to interpret the objectives and program of the American Council on Education, this paper has been restricted to a discussion of membership.

Although the make-up of any social institution may be a matter of some significance, the vital factor is the contribution which the organization makes to its members and through them to the improvement of practice. The publications and services which the Council furnishes to its members might possibly justify their joining, but membership in the Council means more than that. It means that associations and institutions join together to maintain an organization which belongs to them, which carries on a program of importance to all education, a program in which each organization plays a part but which frequently transcends the limitations of any one organization. The loyal support of the members of the Council over the years indicates that such participation is a source of real pride to them.

Within the constituent and associate membership of the Council are now included most of the major educational organizations in the United States. The steadily growing institutional membership presents an excellent cross section of educational practice throughout the country. Consequently, the Council has an unusual opportunity to bring together for deliberation, planning, and action all the forces of American education. The Council is not a regulatory body; it is a cooperative center where education on all levels can meet. To the Council, each member brings a point of view and experience on educational problems; from the Council, each member receives a comprehensive overview of all education and its own possible contribution to the solution of these problems.

The Council at Work

THE Council at Work is a brief summary of the outstanding new projects in which the Council is interested, as well as a progress report on undertakings already launched. It is hoped that this survey will give to the members of the Council and those interested in its work a more intimate view of the Council's development. Individuals desiring additional information regarding subjects mentioned in this section are invited to write to the offices of the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

The Executive Committee of the Council met in Washington on June 23 and July 20, 1940. The latter was an emergency meeting to discuss special matters relative to education and national defense. Since the annual meeting of the Council in May the Executive Committee has admitted the following new members:

Constituent:

American Teachers Association
National League of Nursing Education (formerly an associate member)

Institutional:

Bedford County Public Schools, Bedford, Virginia
Board of Education of the City of Atlanta, Georgia

New Grants

The following new grants have been received by the Council since the July issue of THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD:

GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD:

$13,350 for the use of the Council's Motion Picture Project during the six-month period beginning January 1, 1941.

6,000 for the use of the American Youth Commission in conducting a poll of public opinion and information concerning youth and education.

5,000 for the use of the Commission on Teacher Education in providing and evaluating special educational experiences for teachers.

4,000 for an exploratory project in the preparation and distribution of teaching materials in international relations.

3,250 for the use of the Association of School Film Libraries to continue work in distributing sound recordings.

1,500 for the expenses of printing the report on personnel in rural social studies prepared under the direction of a committee.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION THROUGH THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING:

$10,000 toward the continued support of the teacher-testing program of the Committee on Measurement and Guidance.

STAFF CHANGES

Earl J. McGrath has resigned as specialist in higher education on the Council staff to return to the University of Buffalo as dean of administration.

J. Harvey Cain, director of the Financial Advisory Service, has become associated with the firm of Franke, Hannon and Withe, Certified Public Accountants of New York City. He will continue with the Financial Advisory Service on a part-time basis until January 1941.

Ernest V. Hollis has joined the staff of the Commission on Teacher Education as associate for college teacher education. Dr. Hollis has recently been associated with the School of Education of the College of the City of New York.

NATIONAL COORDINATING COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION AND DEFENSE

On July 20 a special meeting of the Executive Committee

approved the replacement of the Council's Committee on Education and National Defense, as announced in the July issue of the RECORD, by a National Coordinating Committee on Education and Defense to be formed jointly by the Council and the National Education Association. On August 5 representatives from most of the 55 national educational organizations who were invited to accept membership in the committee convened in Washington. The National Coordinating Committee authorized George F. Zook, president of the Council, and W. E. Givens, executive secretary of the National Education Association, to select an operating committee to serve between meetings of the larger group.

The Operating Committee met in Washington on September 6 and elected President Zook and Dr. Givens as co-chairmen. L. H. Dennis, executive secretary of the American Vocational Association, was named recording secretary. The committee agreed that it should undertake the following functions:

1. Immediate and continuous representation of organized education for effective cooperation with the National Defense Council, the Federal Security Agency, and other governmental divisions;
2. Stimulation and coordination of the efforts of educational organizations and institutions in projects related to the national defense;
3. Dissemination of information regarding defense developments to educational organizations and institutions;
4. Maintenance and improvement of educational opportunities essential in a long-range national program.

The members of the Operating Committee of the National Coordinating Committee on Education and Defense are:

F. L. Bishop, University of Pittsburgh
Isaiah Bowman, Johns Hopkins University
Morse Cartwright, American Association for Adult Education
George Counts, Teachers College, Columbia University
L. H. Dennis, American Vocational Association
Clarence A. Dykstra, University of Wisconsin

Paul E. Elicker, Department of Secondary School Principals
Willard E. Givens, National Education Association
Meta Glass, Sweet Briar College
Alonzo Grace, Connecticut State Department of Education
Ben G. Graham, Pittsburgh Public Schools
Charles Hunt, State Teachers College, Oneonta, New York
George Johnson, National Catholic Educational Association
Mordecai W. Johnson, Howard University.
Agnes Samuelson, Iowa State Teachers Association
Guy E. Snavely, Association of American Colleges
T. O. Walton, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas
George F. Zook, American Council on Education

The Council and Defense

In addition to the creation of a National Coordinating Committee the central staff and projects of the Council have devoted much of their efforts during recent months to questions related to defense. New York University has made available the services of Francis J. Brown, who will continue to serve as a special consultant on the central staff of the Council during the coming semester to work on defense problems. The Council staff has been very active in following legislation of concern to education and has cooperated with numerous governmental agencies in the development of policies and procedures affecting education. For example, the Council has kept in close touch with congressional action on the Selective Service Act (Burke-Wadsworth bill), has attempted to assure adequate consideration of education in the act, and has cooperated with various governmental agencies in drawing up regulations regarding its administration. President Zook and members of the Council's subcommittee on military training appeared before the congressional committees when the bill was first introduced.

To keep colleges and universities informed of national developments, the Council established a new bulletin *Higher Education and National Defense* in August. Approximately 4,000 copies of three issues have been distributed to all institutions of higher education in the country. The bulletins

summarize legislative, executive, and nongovernmental activities.

The American Youth Commission of the Council met July 22-24 and adopted a statement, *Youth, Defense and the National Welfare,* which has been very widely distributed.

Floyd W. Reeves, on leave from his post as director of the American Youth Commission, is serving with the Advisory Commission to the Council on National Defense as executive assistant to Sidney Hillman who is in charge of labor supply and training. President Roosevelt has also recently named him as a member of the Advisory Committee on Selective Service.

W. H. Cowley, president of Hamilton College, is representing the Council on the advisory committee to the Civil Service Commission and National Resources Planning Board in the development of a national personnel register to determine the availability of trained personnel in special areas important to national defense.

L. L. Thurstone, author of the Council's psychological examination, and Carl C. Brigham, a member of the Committee on Measurement and Guidance, are serving on the Advisory Committee to the Classification Division of the Army.

Teaching Materials in International Relations

To meet the need of teachers of high school students and college freshmen and sophomores for concise factual materials on the foreign relations of the United States, the American Council on Education is undertaking to prepare in syllabus form teaching materials in international relations. The immediate aim is to furnish a concise statement setting forth the basic need of objectivity in appraising the world scene, and the place of the United States in that scene. In addition the project will take up certain areas of importance in international relations in which specific study materials might be prepared for teachers. Among these subjects are: the United States and the Western Hemisphere, the United States and the Far East, the United States and Neutrality, 1789-1940;

Propaganda and Popular Attitudes on International Affairs, American Defense, the United States Economy in a Totalitarian World.

Phillips Bradley, professor of political science at Queens College has been named director of the project. He has been given leave of absence from his college duties in order to give his full time to this special assignment for the next few months.

Dr. Bradley will be assisted by an advisory committee made up of specialists in fields related to the problem. They are:

Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University
J. Thomas Askew, Armstrong Junior College
Dorothy Borg, Institute of Pacific Relations
Francis J. Brown, New York University
Marie J. Carroll, World Peace Foundation
Edward M. Earle, Institute for Advanced Study
Charles Gosnell, Queens College
Ross Hoffman, Fordham University
Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University
Philip C. Jessup, Columbia University
Tyler Kepner, Brookline (Massachusetts) High School
Walter C. Laves, University of Chicago
William Lockwood, American Committee for International Studies
William T. Stone, Foreign Policy Association
Harrison C. Thomas, Richmond Hill (New York) High School
Ruth Wanger, South Philadelphia High School for Girls.

Dr. Bradley and the committee expect to have the first of the material ready in November.

Ninth Educational Conference

The Ninth Educational Conference will be held at the Hotel Biltmore, New York City, on Thursday and Friday, October 31 and November 1. This annual conference on problems related to individualized education is sponsored by the Educational Records Bureau, the Cooperative Test Service and the Committee on Measurement and Guidance of the American Council on Education, and the Commission on the

Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association.

Ben D. Wood, director of the Cooperative Test Service announces that the speakers will include: Dixon Ryan Fox, president, Union College; George W. Crile, director, the Cleveland Clinic; George D. Stoddard, dean of the Graduate School, State University of Iowa; J. Edgar Park, president, Wheaton College; Carroll R. Reed, superintendent of schools, Minneapolis, and president of the American Association of School Administrators; Burton P. Fowler, headmaster, Tower Hill School; Floyd W. Reeves, Advisory Commission to the Council on National Defense; and Kenneth Holland of the American Youth Commission.

Reservations can be made through Dr. Wood's office, 500 West 116th Street, New York City.

On Saturday, November 2, the Committee on Measurement and Guidance of the Council will sponsor an invitational meeting of testing leaders throughout the country. E. F. Lindquist, State University of Iowa, will serve as chairman.

Commission on Teacher Education

The Commission is extending its activities to include the pre- and in-service preparation of college teachers. Ernest V. Hollis will undertake the study. He will visit graduate schools whose students usually go into college teaching, and undergraduate colleges that are actively promoting the in-service training of teachers. It is not the Commission's plan to conduct intensive research but rather to act as a clearing house and stimulative agent for programs already under way.

From July 22 to August 23 the Commission on Teacher Education of the Council sponsored a workshop at the University of Chicago for 200 representatives from the 34 institutions and school systems in the cooperative study of teacher education. Twelve recipients of fellowships of the General Education Board, from seven state departments of education in southern states, also participated in the workshop.

Ten study groups met each day to consider special prob-

lems in which various persons were interested. Each afternoon the groups met in the art laboratory to do creative work. A series of special evening addresses included papers by Karl W. Bigelow, director of the Commission on Teacher Education, Max Lerner, Carson Ryan, Jr., Russell Story, Mary Fisher, and Ray Faulkner.

There was considerable interchange with the members of the General Education Workshop sponsored by the Council's Cooperative Study in General Education and the Workshop in Home Economics which met in Chicago at the same time.

Publications

Since May 1940 the publications schedule of the Council has been unusually heavy. The following materials have been issued:

American Universities and Colleges: A Handbook of Higher Education, 1940 Edition, edited by C. S. Marsh. *$4.00 a copy.*

The fourth edition of the handbook contains exhibits from 724 accredited institutions of higher education as well as a summary of important education developments and information regarding graduate and professional education.

American Junior Colleges, edited by Walter Crosby Eells. *$3.50 a copy.*

The first edition of a companion volume to *American Universities and Colleges.* Prepared in cooperation with the American Association of Junior Colleges, the book describes 494 junior colleges and contains background material on the junior college movement.

English Word Lists, by Charles C. Fries with A. Aileen Traver. *$1.50 a copy (paper bound).*

A study of the adaptability of English word lists for instruction. Prepared for the Committee on Modern Languages.

English Teaching in the Southwest, by Algernon Coleman with Clara Breslove King. *$2.00 a copy (paper bound).*

An analysis of materials and programs to teach English to Spanish-speaking children. Prepared for the Committee on Modern Languages.

Semantic Frequency List for English, French, German and Spanish, compiled by Helen S. Eaton. *Published by the University of Chicago Press. $5.00 a copy.*

A correlation of the first 6,000 words in frequency lists, sponsored by the Committee on Modern Languages.

Children of Bondage: The Personality Development of Negro Youth in the Urban South, by Allison Davis and John Dollard. *$2.25 a copy.*

The first of a series of five volumes reporting the American Youth Commission's study of the personality development of minority groups under the direction of Robert S. Sutherland. It includes case studies of Negro youth in Natchez and New Orleans.

Negro Youth at the Crossways: Their Personality Development in the Middle States, by E. Franklin Frazier. *$2.25 a copy.*

The second of the series of Negro studies of the American Youth Commission dealing with youth in Washington, D. C., and Louisville, Kentucky.

Louisiana State University: A Survey Report.

The report of the special survey commission appointed by the Council at the request of Louisiana State University.

Public Higher Education in Utah: A Survey Report.

The report of the special survey commission appointed by the Council at the request of the Educational Survey Committee appointed by the Governor of Utah under an act passed by the Utah legislature.

What the High Schools Ought to Teach. 25¢ a copy (paper bound); 50¢ a copy (board).

The report to the American Youth Commission of a special committee on the secondary school curriculum under the chairmanship of Ben G. Graham.

Social Competence and College Students, by Esther Lloyd-Jones. *50¢ a copy (paper bound).*

No. 3 of Series VI of the Council Studies. Prepared for the Committee on Student Personnel Work as a handbook on the development of social programs.

A School Uses Motion Pictures, by the Staff of Tower Hill School. *$1.00 a copy (paper bound).*

No. 3 of Series II of the Council Studies. An illustrated account of experimentation with motion pictures prepared for the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education.

Deliberative Committee Reports in Secondary Education, prepared by the Educational Policies Commission. *25¢ a copy (paper bound).*

No. 12 of Series I of the Council Studies. An annotated bibliog-

raphy of major reports in secondary education from 1936-1940 prepared by the Educational Policies Commission for the Committee on the Implementation of the Findings of Educational Research.

Psychological Examinations, 1939, by L. L. Thurstone, Thelma Gwinn Thurstone, and Dorothy C. Adkins. *25¢ a copy (paper bound).*

No. 2 in Series V of the Council Studies. Includes the national norms on the 1939 editions of the Council's Psychological Examinations and a special study of the Tests for Primary Mental Abilities.

American Youth Commission Recommendations:

Youth, Defense, and the National Welfare
Community Responsibility for Youth
The Occupational Adjustment of Youth
Should Youth Organize

A series of pamphlets presenting pronouncements of the Commission on significant problems.

American Youth Commission Radio Leaflets:

Finding the Facts about Youth
New Strength for America
Rallying Resources for Youth

A series of leaflets based on Commission radio broadcasts.

Financial Statements of the American Council on Education

THE BUDGET, 1940–41

(As approved by the Annual Meeting, May 4, 1940)

RECEIPTS

	Estimated Resources July 1, 1939 to June 30, 1940	*Actual Receipts July 1, 1939 to June 30, 1940*	*Budget, Estimated Resources July 1, 1940 to June 30, 1941*
Membership dues	$ 22,000.00	$ 24,110.00	$ 23,500.00
Special grants	55,553.01	55,553.01	50,000.00
Reimbursement for services	13,000.00	19,420.81	15,000.00
Bank interest	—	.81	—
Income from Publications Division*	3,500.00	3,500.00	3,500.00
Bank balance, June 30, 1939, estimated	12,000.00	—	—
Actual bank balance, June 30, 1939	—	12,502.49	—
Bank balance, June 30, 1940, estimated	—	—	12,500.00
	$106,053.01	$115,087.12	$104,500.00

DISBURSEMENTS

	Fiscal Year 1939–40 Proposed	*Fiscal Year 1939–40 Expended*	*Fiscal Year 1940–41 Proposed*
Rent	$ 6,822.75	$ 6,822.75	$ 7,300.00
Salary of President	18,000.00	18,000.00	18,000.00
Salary of President Emeritus	6,000.00	6,000.00	6,000.00
Salary of Vice President	9,500.00	9,500.00	9,500.00
Salaries of assistants	37,324.01	37,324.01	40,690.00
Traveling expenses, administrative	5,501.50	5,501.50	5,000.00
Stationery, printing, and supplies	1,620.48	1,620.48	1,500.00
Telephone and telegraph	1,088.49	1,088.49	1,000.00
Postage and express	1,065.92	1,065.92	1,600.00
Furniture and equipment	2,997.66	2,997.66	2,800.00
Committees, including Problems and Plans Committee	8,860.30	4,525.86	6,000.00
Study of Primary Abilities	2,000.00	2,000.00	—
Auditor's fee	1,200.00	1,200.00	1,200.00
General expense	1,954.92	1,954.92	1,500.00
Contingent	2,116.98	2,116.98	2,410.00
	$106,053.01	$101,718.57	$104,500.00

* See Publications Revolving Fund budget, next page.

PUBLICATIONS REVOLVING FUND

July 1, 1940 to June 30, 1941

Estimated Gross Receipts

Tests and record cards	$29,000.00
Books, The "Educational Record," "Studies," pamphlets	12,000.00
Special grants and subsidies	500.00
Reimbursement for publication services from projects	13,200.00
Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards	22,000.00
Balance July 1, 1940, estimated	3,000.00
Total	$79,700.00

Estimated Gross Expenditures

Printing, mailing, advertising	$37,500.00
Special assistance in Publications Division	4,500.00
Mailing lists costs	7,500.00
Project promotion costs	4,000.00
Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards	22,000.00
Accumulated net to be transferred to A. C. E. operating budget	3,500.00
Balance June 30, 1941, estimated	700.00
Total	$79,700.00

F. W. LAFRENTZ & Co.
CERTIFIED PUBLIC ACCOUNTANTS
Colorado Building
Washington, D. C.

August 22, 1940

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIRS:

We have examined your accounts from July 1, 1939 to June 30, 1940, inclusive, and submit herewith our report, including three exhibits, as follows:

EXHIBIT "A"—STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—General Fund

EXHIBIT "B"—STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—Publications Revolving Fund

EXHIBIT "C"—STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—Special Funds

Recorded cash receipts were deposited in bank, as evidenced by bank statements and cash disbursements, as shown by the records, were supported by cancelled checks and vouchers.

The cash on deposit with the American Security and Trust Company at June 30, 1940 was confirmed by correspondence with the depository. A summary of the balances on hand is as follows:

General Fund—Exhibit "A"	$13,368.55
Publications Revolving Fund—Exhibit "B"	12,030.58
Special Funds—Exhibit "C"	29,408.42
Total	$54,807.55

Fidelity schedule bond in force covering the following named persons was presented for our inspection:

Dr. George F. Zook, President	$ 5,000.00
Dr. C. S. Marsh, Vice President	5,000.00
Dr. C. R. Mann, President Emeritus	5,000.00
Mr. Corcoran Thom, Treasurer	15,000.00
Mr. Donald J. Shank, Assistant Treasurer	15,000.00
Mrs. Grace R. Ontrich, Assistant Treasurer	15,000.00
Total	$60,000.00

Respectfully submitted,

F. W. LAFRENTZ & Co.,
Certified Public Accountants.

EXHIBIT "A"

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Washington, D. C.

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—GENERAL FUND

From July 1, 1939 to June 30, 1940

RECEIPTS

Dues:			
Constituent members		$ 3,500.00	
Associate members		460.00	
Institutional members		20,150.00	$ 24,110.00
Contributions:			
For general support—General Education Board			55,553.01
Reimbursements for Administration of Grants:			
American Youth Commission:			
General support	$2,116.65		
CCC—NYA implementation study	2,101.37		
Community experiments in employment and occupational adjustment	75.30		
Racial factor in personality of Negro youth	597.71		
Radio broadcasting program	31.02		
Special implementation project	112.60		
Summarizing information concerning problems of Negro youth	98.52		
Study of youth-led organizations	81.83	$ 5,215.00	
Commission on Teacher Education:			
Central office	$ 834.92		
All-state program	339.54		
Division on child development and teacher personnel	1,364.53		
Division on human growth and development	132.32		
General field program	1,730.79	4,402.10	
Committee on Implementation of Studies in Secondary Education		63.32	
Committee on Study of Educational Evaluation		209.54	
Conference Fund—Office of Education, Grant I-38042		169.19	
Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards		561.13	
Cooperative Test Fund		860.13	
Cooperative Test Fund—Trade Account		1,505.39	
Teacher Examination Project		1,397.08	
Cooperative Study in General Education		651.70	
Exploratory study of need for and possibilities of preparing teaching materials, etc., dealing with present war in Europe and its implications for the United States		85.36	
Financial Advisory Service		368.20	
Louisiana Survey		219.51	
Committee on Motion Pictures in Education—General Fund		582.49	
Association of School Film Libraries:			
Operating division	$ 313.01		
Recordings division	86.23		
Special distribution conference	32.74	431.98	
Research in Primary Human Abilities		137.16	
White House Conference on Children in a Democracy		561.64	
		$17,420.92	
Services:			
Mimeographing	$ 791.12		
Telephone	642.77		
Banking and miscellaneous	566.00	1,999.89	19,420.81
Other Receipts:			
Income from Publications Revolving Fund		$ 3,500.00	
Interest		.81	3,500.81
Total Receipts			$102,584.63
Cash on hand, July 1, 1939, American Security and Trust Company			12,502.49
			$115,087.12

DISBURSEMENTS

Administrative:			
Salaries:			
President	$18,000.00		
Vice President	9,500.00		
President Emeritus	6,000.00		
Assistants	37,324.01	$70,824.01	
Traveling expenses:			
Administrative (net)	$ 4,210.99		
Executive Committee	1,290.51	5,501.50	
Rent (net)		6,822.75	
Stationery, printing and supplies (net)		1,620.48	
Postage and express (net)		1,065.92	
Telephone and telegraph (net)		1,088.49	
General expense (net)		1,954.92	
Accountants' fee		1,200.00	
Furniture and fixtures (including $2,000.00 Council's share of mailing list cost)		2,997.66	
Contingent:			
Committee on Study of Educational Evaluation	$ 1,132.15		
Study of the increase in qualitativeness in accrediting standards	193.20		
Utah Survey	475.65		
International Bureau of Education	250.75		
Standards of Sanitary Equipment in Schools	65.23	2,116.98	$ 95,192.71
Projects:			
Study of Primary Abilities			2,000.00
Committees of Council:			
Problems and Plans		$ 1,537.01	
Measurement and Guidance		628.64	
Government and Educational Finance		67.97	
Student Personnel Work		598.14	
Future Policy of American Council on Education		72.72	
School Plant Research Council		2.20	
Educational Surveys		75.70	
Publications		8.15	
Education and National Defense		399.84	
Miscellaneous		1,135.49	4,525.86
Total Disbursements			$101,718.57
Cash on hand, June 30, 1940,			
American Security and Trust Company			13,368.55
			$115,087.12

EXHIBIT "B"

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
Washington, D. C.

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—PUBLICATIONS REVOLVING FUND

From July 1, 1939 to June 30, 1940

RECEIPTS

Tests, record cards, etc.			$32,098.92
Books, The "Educational Record," "Studies," pamphlets			14,591.65
Special grants and subsidies:			
Mailing lists costs:			
Commission on Teacher Education	$1,000.00		
American Youth Commission	2,500.00		
Motion Pictures in Education	500.00		
American Council on Education	2,000.00	$6,000.00	
Transfer from printing, mailing, etc.		798.62	
Miscellaneous income—addressograph work		99.50	
Mailing lists costs—contra		$6,898.12	
Committee on Implementation of Studies in Secondary Education—transfer of unexpended balance		471.57	7,369.69
Reimbursement for publication services, etc.			2,963.81
Total Receipts			$57,024.07
Cash on hand, July 1, 1939, American Security and Trust Company			12,978.57
			$70,002.64

DISBURSEMENTS

Printing, mailing, advertising, etc.	$36,244.19
Special assistance in Publications Division	10,531.13
Accumulation transferred to American Council on Education	3,500.00
Mailing lists costs—contra	6,898.12
Publications Revolving Fund share of mailing lists costs	798.62
Total Disbursements	$57,972.06
Cash on hand, June 30, 1940, American Security and Trust Company	12,030.58
	$70,002.64

EXHIBIT "C"

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Washington, D. C.

Statement of Cash Receipts and Disbursements—Special Funds

From July 1, 1939 to June 30, 1940

Funds	Balance July 1, 1939	Receipts	Disbursements	Balance June 30, 1940
American Youth Commission, and Projects and Publications	$ 24,695.55	$237,046.44	$243,139.72	$ 18,602.27
Association of School Film Libraries	417.66	34,158.24	27,941.71	6,634.19
Commission on Teacher Education, and Projects	10,211.45	187,126.52	182,916.75	14,421.22
Committee on Cooperative Study in General Education	6,222.77	47,232.39	50,342.97	3,112.19
Committee on Implementation of Studies in Secondary Education	774.63	1,860.65	2,635.28	—
Committee on Motion Pictures in Education	−250.59	57,771.20	54,917.10	2,603.51
Committee on Relation of Emotion to the Educative Process	188.32	—	—	188.32
Committee on Study of Educational Evaluation	−1,223.34	13,122.66	11,899.32	—
Committee on Unitary Differential Traits of Human Nature	219.00	—	—	219.00
Conference Fund—Office of Education, Grant 1-39042	1,686.35	5,852.92	6,499.51	1,039.76
Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards	14,357.50	24,463.81	35,755.79	3,065.52
Cooperative Test Service, Distributing Office	57,506.18	69,137.47	63,723.01	62,920.64
Cooperative Test Service, Test Producing Division	263.20	35,265.48	35,528.68	—
Exploratory study of need for and possibilities of preparing teaching materials, etc., dealing with present war in Europe and its implications for the United States	—	3,500.00	3,270.50	229.50
Exploratory study of the supply of properly trained personnel in rural social studies	—	2,500.00	4,214.03	−1,714.03
Financial Advisory Service	891.59	17,173.40	17,274.72	790.27
Foreign Language Study Fund	6,366.28	4,367.31	5,149.97	5,583.62
Historical study of vocational education in agriculture of less than college grade	—	1,716.40	1,415.75	300.65
National Advisory Committee on Education	384.76	21.39	.10	406.05
Research in Primary Human Abilities	4,259.01	7,000.00	5,133.20	6,125.81
Revision of cumulative record forms and related materials	—	3,500.00	9.50	3,490.50
Study of school equipment specifications and standards	—	3,000.00	2,246.62	753.38
Subcommittee on Occupational Training and Vocational Adjustment	358.90	—	358.90	—
Survey account	—	13,476.46	15,155.87	−1,679.41
Teacher Examination Project	44,026.79	49,364.73	56,307.04	37,084.48
White House Conference on Children in a Democracy	2,947.25	35,579.28	34,890.40	3,636.13
Yearbooks of School Law	261.46	328.58	382.96	207.08
Total	$174,564.72	$854,565.33	$861,109.40	$168,020.65

INDEX TO VOLUME XXI

1940

January	1-126	July	255-436
April	127-254	October	437-575

Supplement No. 13.....S.1—S. 208

THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD is published four times a year, in the months of January, April, July, and October, by the American Council on Education. It is indexed in the *Education Index*.

The index to Volume XXI (January-October 1940) includes the proceedings of the Eighth Educational Conference held in New York City, October 26 and 27, 1939, under the auspices of the Educational Records Bureau, the Cooperative Test Service, the Committee on Measurement and Guidance of the American Council on Education, and the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association. This report was published in January 1940 as Supplement 13 to THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD. Articles from this supplement may be identified in the index by the letter "S" in front of the page numbers.

Accent on Cooperation, Karl W. Bigelow, 188-202.
Accounting and Financial Reporting for Colleges and Universities, A Decade of Progress in, J. Harvey Cain, 497-505.
Accrediting, Comprehensive Qualitative, Ernest V. Hollis, 506-37.
Admissions Situation, The Current College, W. H. Cowley, S.34-46.
Adventures of a Workshopper, Howard M. Bell, 470-76.

Basis of Cooperation in Education, A, C. R. Mann, 88-95.
BELL, HOWARD M., Adventures of a Workshopper, 470-76.
BERNREUTER, ROBERT G., The Present Status of Personality Trait Tests, S.160-71.
Bibliography in General Education, A, Earl J. McGrath, 96-118.
BIGELOW, KARL W., Accent on Cooperation, 188-202.
———, The Education and Adjustment of American Youth: A Symposium and Panel Discussion, 406-23.
Businessman Looks at Education, A, Henry I. Harriman, 395-405.

CAIN, J. HARVEY, A Decade of Progress in Accounting and Financial Reporting for Colleges and Universities, 497-505.
Can We Influence Mental Growth: A Critique of Recent Experiments, Florence L. Goodenough, S.120-43.
CAPEN, SAMUEL P., The Effect of the World War 1914-18 on American Colleges and Universities, 40-48.

CARR, WILLIAM G. (with Howard A. Dawson), Federal Relations to Education, 14-27.
CHAMBERS, M. M., The Colleges and the Courts in 1938-39, 64-87.
Class Observations and Professional Growth, Edgar G. Johnston, 140-47.
CLIFTON, ROBERT S., Should Religion Be Taught in Our Schools? 445-53.
College to Its Students, The Responsibility of the, Constance Warren, 381-94.
Colleges and the Courts in 1938-39, The, M. M. Chambers, 64-87.
Colleges in the Preparedness Program 1917-18 and 1940, The, Rowland Haynes, 489-96.
COLLIER, TARLETON, Georgia Faces Facts, 131-39.
Comprehension, The Testing of, Louis C. Zahner, S.71-89.
Comprehensive Examination in English, Recent Trends in the, Edward S. Noyes, S.107-19.
Comprehensive Qualitative Accrediting, Ernest V. Hollis, 506-37.
Contributors to This Issue, 4, 130, 258, 440, S.4.
Cooperation in Education, A Basis of, C. R. Mann, 88-95.
Cooperative Test Service, Ten Years of the, Ben D. Wood, 369-80.
Copyright Bill, Senate 3043, The New, Waldo G. Leland, 237-45.
Council at Work, The, 119-25, 246-54, 424-36, 549-58.
Council?, Who Belongs to the, Donald J. Shank, 538-48.
Courts in 1938-39, The Colleges and the, M. M. Chambers, 64-87.
COWLEY, W. H., The Current College Admissions Situation, S.34-46.
Cumulative Records, Parents and, Robert N. Hilkert, S.172-83.
Current College Admissions Situation, The, W. H. Cowley, S.34-46.
DAWSON, HOWARD A. (with William G. Carr), Federal Relations to Education, 14-27.
DAY, EDMUND E., The Status of Teaching in the American University, 5-13.
Decade of Progress in Accounting and Financial Reporting for Colleges and Universities, A, J. Harvey Cain, 497-505.
Dental Education to the University Program, The Relation of, Raymond A. Kent, 203-19.
Educating Teachers?, How Can the College and the School Cooperate in, A. W. Merrill, 359-68.
Education, A Businessman Looks at, Henry I. Harriman, 395-405.
Education and Adjustment of American Youth: A Symposium and Panel Discussion, The, 406-23.

Education and the Future of the Public Service, Luther H. Gulick, S.152-59.
Education and the National Defense (The Council at Work), 424-36.
Education of a democrat, Mark A. May, 335-48.
Educational Conference: A Review, The 1939, Arthur E. Traxler, S.5-16.
Educational Records Bureau: Committee Reports, Ninth Annual Meeting of Institutional Members of the, S.190-208.
Effect of the World War 1914-18 on American Colleges and Universities, The, Samuel P. Capen, 40-48.
ERSKINE, JOHN, Train Conscripts for War—and for Peace, 441-44.

Federal Relations to Education, Howard A. Dawson and William G. Carr, 14-27.
Financial Reporting for Colleges and Universities, A Decade of Progress in Accounting and, J. Harvey Cain, 497-505.
Financial Statements of the American Council on Education, 559-65.

GANNON, ROBERT I., S.J., General Education and the Jesuit Conception of Education, 349-58.
General Education, A Bibliography in, Earl J. McGrath, 96-118.
General Education and the Jesuit Conception of Education, Robert I. Gannon, S.J., 349-58.
Georgia Faces Facts, Tarleton Collier, 131-39.
GLICKSBERG, CHARLES I., Henry Adams on Education, 177-87.
GOODENOUGH, FLORENCE L., Can We Influence Mental Growth: A Critique of Recent Experiments, S.120-43.
Guidance. (*See* Adventures of a Workshopper), 470-76.
Guidance Activities, National Coordination of, Floyd W. Reeves, 148-59.
Guidance and Transfer, Modernizing Records for, Eugene R. Smith, S.17-33.
GULICK, LUTHER H., Education and the Future of the Public Service, S.152-59.

HARRIMAN, HENRY I., A Businessman Looks at Education, 395-405.
HAYNES, ROWLAND, The Colleges in the Preparedness Program 1917-18 and 1940, 489-96.
Henry Adams on Education, Charles I. Glicksberg, 177-87.
HILKERT, ROBERT N., Parents and Cumulative Records, S.172-83.

HOBAN, CHARLES F., JR., The Education and Adjustment of American Youth: A Symposium and Panel Discussion, 406-23.
———, Retreat to Aristotelian Mediocrity, 160-76.
HOLLIS, ERNEST V., Comprehensive Qualitative Accrediting, 506-37.
How Can the College and the School Cooperate in Educating Teachers? A. W. Merrill, 359-68.

International Bureau of University Statistics, The, Walter M. Kotschnig, 28-39.

Jesuit Conception of Education, General Education and the, Robert I. Gannon, S.J., 349-58.
JOHNSTON, EDGAR G., Class Observation and Professional Growth, 140-47.

KENT, RAYMOND A., The Relation of Dental Education to the University Program, 203-19.
KEPPEL, FRANCIS, Your Young Men Shall See Visions, 477-88.
KOTSCHNIG, WALTER M., International Bureau of University Statistics, The, 28-39.

LEE, EDWIN A., Major Problems in Occupational Adjustment, S.57-70.
LELAND, WALDO G., The New Copyright Bill, Senate 3043, 237-45.
Library in the Modern World, The Place of the University, Carl M. White, 454-69.

Major Problems in Occupational Adjustment, Edwin A. Lee, S.57-70.
MANN, C. R., A Basis of Cooperation in Education, 88-95.
MAY, MARK A., The Education of a democrat, 335-48.
MCGRATH, EARL J., A Bibliography in General Education, 96-118.
Mental Growth: A Critique of Recent Experiments, Can We Influence, Florence Goodenough, S.120-43.
MERRILL, A. W., How Can the College and the School Cooperate in Educating Teachers? 359-68.
Modernizing Records for Guidance and Transfer, Eugene R. Smith, S.17-33.

National Coordination of Guidance Activities, Floyd W. Reeves, 148-59.
National Defense, Education and (The Council at Work), 424-36.
New Copyright Bill, Senate 3043, The, Waldo G. Leland, 237-45.
Ninth Annual Meeting of Institutional Members of the Educational Records Bureau: Committee Reports, S.190-208.

Note Regarding the 1939 Psychological Examinations, A, 254.
NOYES, EDWARD S., Recent Trends in the Comprehensive Examination in English, S.107-19.

Occupational Adjustment, Major Problems in, Edwin A. Lee, S.57-70.

Parents and Cumulative Records, Robert N. Hilkert, S.172-83.
PARK, MARION E., Some Values of Progressive Education for Women, S.47-56.
Personality Trait Tests, The Present Status of, Robert G. Bernreuter, S.160-71.
Perspective upon Education, Henry M. Wriston, S.90-106.
Place of the University Library in the Modern World, The, Carl M. White, 454-69.
Preparedness Program 1917-18 and 1940, The Colleges in the, Rowland Haynes, 489-96.
Present Status of Personality Trait Tests, The, Robert G. Bernreuter, S.160-71.
President's Annual Report, The, George F. Zook, 259-334.
Progressive Education for Women, Some Values of, Marion E. Park, S.47-56.
Psychological Examinations, A Note Regarding the 1939, 254.
Public Service, Education and the Future of the, Luther H. Gulick, S.152-59.

Recent Trends in the Comprehensive Examination in English, Edward S. Noyes, S.107-19.
REEVES, FLOYD W., The Education and Adjustment of American Youth: A Symposium and Panel Discussion, 406-23.
———, National Coordination of Guidance Activities, 148-59.
Relation of Dental Education to the University Program, The, Raymond A. Kent, 203-19.
Religion Be Taught in Our Schools? Should, Robert S. Clifton, 445-53.
Researcher Looks at Research, A, A. C. Rosander, 220-36.
Responsibility of the College to Its Students, The, Constance Warren, 381-94.
Retreat to Aristotelian Mediocrity, Charles F. Hoban, Jr., 160-76.
ROSANDER, A. C., A Researcher Looks at Research, 220-36.
RUSSELL, WILLIAM F., The Education and Adjustment of American Youth: A Symposium and Panel Discussion, 406-23.

Selection of Teachers from the National Viewpoint, The, A. J. Stoddard, S.144-51.
SHANK, DONALD J., Who Belongs to the Council? 538-48.
———, The State Testing Leaders Meet Again, S.184-89.
Should Religion Be Taught in Our Schools? Robert S. Clifton, 445-53.
SMITH, EUGENE R., Modernizing Records for Guidance and Transfer, S.17-33.
SMITH, RUFUS D., The Tide of Youth, 49-63.
Some Values of Progressive Education for Women, Marion E. Park, S.47-56.
State Testing Leaders Meet Again, The, Donald J. Shank, S. 184-89.
Status of Teaching in the American University, The, Edmund E. Day, 5-13.
STODDARD, A. J., The Selection of Teachers from the National Viewpoint, S. 144-51.
Teaching in the American University, The Status of, Edmund E. Day, 5-13.
Ten Years of the Cooperative Test Service, Ben D. Wood, 369-80.
Testing of Comprehension, The, Louis C. Zahner, S.71-89.
Tide of Youth, The, Rufus D. Smith, 49-63.
Train Conscripts for War—and for Peace, John Erskine, 441-44.
TRAXLER, ARTHUR E., The 1939 Educational Conference: A Review, S.5-16.
TYLER, RALPH W., The Education and Adjustment of American Youth: A Symposium and Panel Discussion, 406-23.
University Statistics, The International Bureau of, Walter M. Kotschnig, 28-40.
War—and for Peace, Train Conscripts for, John Erskine, 441-44.
WARREN, CONSTANCE, The Responsibility of the College to Its Students, 381-94.
WHITE, CARL M., The Place of the University Library in the Modern World, 454-69.
Who Belongs to the Council? Donald J. Shank, 538-48.
Women, Some Values of Progressive Education for, Marion E. Park, S.47-56.
WOOD, BEN D., Ten Years of the Cooperative Test Service, 369-80.
World War 1914-18 on American Colleges and Universities, The Effect of the, Samuel P. Capen, 40-48.
WRISTON, HENRY M., Perspective upon Education, S.90-106.

Your Young Men Shall See Visions, Francis Keppel, 477-88.
Youth: A Symposium and Panel Discussion, The Education and Adjustment of American, William F. Russell, Floyd W. Reeves, Ralph W. Tyler, Charles F. Hoban, Jr., Karl W. Bigelow, 406-23.
Youth, The Tide of, Rufus D. Smith, 49-63.

ZAHNER, LOUIS C., The Testing of Comprehension, S.71-89.
ZOOK, GEORGE F., The President's Annual Report, 259-334.